

# The History Teacher's Magazine

EDITED UNDER THE SUPERVISION OF A COMMITTEE OF THE AMERICAN HISTORICAL ASSOCIATION.

Volume VII.  
Number 3.

PHILADELPHIA, MARCH, 1916.

\$2.00 a year.  
20 cents a copy.

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Published monthly, except July and August, by McKinley Publishing Co., Philadelphia, Pa.

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## The Study of Recent American History

BY PROFESSOR FREDERIC L. PAXSON, UNIVERSITY OF WISCONSIN.

There are three reasons why the history of the last forty years is poorly taught, or omitted entirely, in our American schools. The first, and most important, is a mixture of modesty and incapacity on the part of the teacher. He has almost never covered this period in his college courses and he lacks a body of organized, accessible and undisputed material such as he can command for all earlier periods. Lacking knowledge and training, he hesitates to pronounce historical judgments upon the events of his lifetime. As a reader of newspapers and magazines he has a diffuse mixture of acquaintance and ignorance, and fully recognizes all his limitations. He thus yields without a struggle to the lesser reasons for stopping his course at the close of reconstruction.

The text-writers have encouraged him in this omission. The concluding chapters of many of the high school texts are barren annals recording facts without color or perspective or background. They show no causes or results and are thus so much less interesting than the earlier chapters, with their great social or political movements, that both class and teacher feel a distinct slump when they enter upon the Hayes administration. The second reason, lack of interest, is thus provided for failing to connect the past with the present in America.

The third reason is found in the human tendency toward disproportion. Only the best teachers see the end of the course when they begin it, or follow a premeditated schedule with snap and firmness. They dally over Plymouth Rock or the Chesapeake, or over Puritanism and abolitionism, only to learn that the year has ended with the text uncovered. They try to repair their neglect by a gallop through the final chapters.

Whatever the cause for the neglect, the four last decades are the real "dark ages" for the historian and teacher. With a constant and rising demand for co-ordination between school and life, history commonly stands in the traces and leaves to biology, literature, civics, and miscellaneous utilitarian economics the burden and privilege of pulling the load. It thus neglects the chance to prove its right to exist as a key for the interpretation of the present, and to lead its students with fresher curiosity and attention back to remote and yet more remote generations. Only when the idea has been impressed that the present is but a bit of uncompleted, unenvisioned history does the student see that from the history of the past he can reconstruct the earlier "presents" that have passed

away. There is no field lying before the teacher or investigator more promising than this in which he may do pioneer work in the process of transmuting common half-knowledge into historic fact.

I take it for granted that the history of the present—European, oriental or American—is an inseparable part of the field available for proper historical instruction, and has, as well, additional practical values of high order. The proportion of time that it should command, and the point of view from which it should be approached constitute the preliminaries of any discussion of its interpretation.

### SCALE OF TREATMENT.

If a year is to be devoted to the study of American history, it is not too much to ask that a full third of the time be given to the period since the Civil War, and to issues disconnected with reconstruction. It is unwise and impracticable to divide the time allotted in chronological proportions. The two centuries between Plymouth and the peace of Ghent contain fewer problems and events than the century just ending. If one can give a full course to the colonies or to the revolution, well and good; but if one course must be inclusive, then the teacher must treat a decade in the life of ninety millions as worth a generation or more of the life of five millions or under. The economic changes occurring between the Centennial of 1876 and the first Bryan campaign carried the world farther than those of the three hundred years between Columbus and George Stephenson. Our true proportion must take into consideration the value of years and facts as well as their number.

With the proportion and scale of the course settled, half the problem of recent history is solved. The teacher will approach the unit understanding that he is to prepare in the earlier parts of the course for the more exacting work of the final third. He will be stimulated to keep to his schedule, and his course will gain in definiteness and balance thereby. And throughout the year he will be reading his current literature with the understanding that its roots lie among the facts that he is soon to teach. His attitude towards these facts will demand consideration.

The history teacher, dealing with facts that have been observed by the parents of all his students, is in a sense handling educational high explosives. Errors of judgment or of information will react upon him with an immediacy unknown to the teacher of, say, ancient history, whose subject matter has passed beyond capacity for coherent or indignant speech. Our

teacher must subordinate his own opinions for the sake of both expediency and truth. As a partisan he cannot go far. He must cultivate the judicial frame of mind; must reconsider every adverse opinion that he has; must distrust every conclusion that seems to him settled; and must so present his material as to leave with his class a residue of uncontrovertible facts—the greatest common divisor of all shades of opinion and interest. To do this he needs to be born again intellectually. Unless he can subordinate prejudice and interest he cannot do his duty well. It can be done, however, and repays the greatest care.

If the teacher has determined to put a third of the year upon the period in which his own education is weakest, and for which the text-book is least adequate, if he has filtered from his mind the hindrances to fair and impartial statement, he is ready to consider the guides from which he can best get his survey and basic organization of the field and from which he may develop topic after topic as they enter his course.

The best reference book for recent history is the Channing, Hart and Turner "Guide," in which Professor F. J. Turner has provided bibliographies upon a wide range of recent topics. The topics here treated and the materials presented are full of suggestion for the teacher of the period, and indicate that the materials are fragmentary and refractory.

#### GENERAL WORKS.

It is too much to expect that another Rhodes or McMaster should already have prepared a compendious history of the recent period, and the high school texts are in most instances annalistic and weak. There have appeared, however, the forerunners of a new class of American histories, intended for college students and the general public, and well adapted for the special work of teachers. J. S. Bassett's "Short History of the United States," C. R. Fish's "Rise of American Nationality," and F. L. Paxson's "New Nation" all contain surveys of the last half century upon a different scale from that of the high school text. C. A. Beard's "Contemporary American History" has discussed those aspects of recent history that have interested the author, from the standpoint of socialistic philosophy, while P. L. Haworth's "America in Ferment" has done similarly in the spirit of a Progressive. None of these treatments is final, yet each of them may be helpful to the judicious teacher who wishes to survey the least charted period of his course. He will do well to have all of them at reach, and to follow all, but none too closely, as he constructs the framework of his course.

The actual materials that the teacher must use, and that he must induce his students of recent history to use to a considerable degree, are fragmentary and special. Only a few pretend to be comprehensive. H. T. Peck's "Twenty Years of the Republic" and E. B. Andrews's "United States in Our Own Time" are entertaining and journalistic. E. E. Sparks's "National Development," D. R. Dewey's "National Problems" and J. H. Latane's "America as a World

Power" are useful and accurate, but are already ten years old and thus do not include materials recently made available. K. Coman's "Industrial History of the United States," E. L. Bogart's "Economic History," D. R. Dewey's "Financial History" and C. R. Fish's "American Diplomacy" are the standard topical reference works in their respective fields, so far as they go. All aid in ascertaining the external facts, but all call for much supplementary work in materials that are nearer to the original sources.

Whatever the theory as to emphasis upon text or collateral reading, it is clear that the recent third of the United States history course must be pursued through a maze of collateral readings. The student may well acquire familiarity with texts in the earlier part of the course. Now, he must be shown how to use and understand fugitive partisan material, and to build upon it a body of knowledge of his own. The sources to which he must go are chiefly of six classes:—(1) special works, (2) biography, autobiography and letters, (3) formal reference compilations, (4) technical journals, (5) periodicals, and (6) public documents.

#### SPECIAL WORKS.

(1) There are already numerous books and articles dealing with special aspects of our period. Ida Tarbell's "Standard Oil Company" and "Tariff in Our Times" are two excellent and useful specimens of the type. P. L. Haworth's "Hayes-Tilden Election," W. J. Lauck's "Causes of the Panic of 1893," T. Roosevelt's "Rough Riders," W. E. Smythe's "Conquest of Arid America" all suggest phases of the intricate story, and point toward others of their kind—recent, imperfect, only partly informed and often partisan, yet forming the best constituent parts available for our current knowledge.

#### BIOGRAPHY, AUTOBIOGRAPHY AND LETTERS.

(2) More valuable than the special books are the works of biographical character, now appearing in considerable numbers each year. Within the past few months Mrs. W. H. Taft has given in "Recollections of Full Years" an intimate view of government and colonial affairs for the last two decades; W. R. Thayer's "John Hay" has revealed facts drawn from personal and public documents that change our understanding of the politics and diplomacy of the McKinley-Roosevelt era; C. R. Williams has drawn from the family papers at Spiegel Grove manuscript authority that forms the groundwork of his "Rutherford Burchard Hayes," and which provides much of the material for rewriting the whole history of the Hayes administration. Every year adds increasingly to the material of this type. Other active minds that contributed to the shaping of the last generation and that have been made visible in works of this class include Charles Elliot Norton, James Russell Lowell, John Sherman, George F. Hoar, Orville H. Platt, Thomas C. Platt, George Dewey, Nelson A. Miles, Jay Cooke, Theodore Roosevelt, Robert M. LaFollette, Edwin L. Godkin. The list might be lengthened indefinitely. The class, with all the limitations in-

herent in books of laudatory or reminiscent character, is invaluable. Nearly every school or town library has or can have a few of them ready to give to students that insight into affairs that comes from being admitted to the confidence of the leading figures of the past. They inspire and illuminate the work, and add fact details for nearly every aspect of its topical analysis.

#### REFERENCE COMPILATIONS.

(3) The best formal reference work for the recent period is Appleton's "Annual Cyclopædia" which commenced its series with the Civil War and continued it to 1902. Here are to be found good, clear, journalistic articles on national and state politics, on business and letters, on personalities and religion. Few of the articles are based on first-hand knowledge, but they represent faithfully what the well-informed contemporary knew, or thought he knew. And since the shifting of public movements depends as much upon the short range view of alleged facts as upon the eternal verities, a book like this is to be cherished. Unfortunately it ceased to issue fifteen years ago, and there is no similar book of equal value to take its place. But there are various annuals or year-books to be found on every library reference shelf that contribute their quota of facts to be assimilated by teacher and class. Lalor's "Cyclopædia," although it appeared at the very beginning of our period, is still useful in providing what may be regarded as the historical background for the period, and Hart and McLaughlin's "Cyclopædia" is its more recent imitator. Each of these, as well as the various encyclopedias, has its value for our work.

#### TECHNICAL JOURNALS.

(4) The technical journals in the social sciences have the utmost interest for us from the very beginning of the period; indeed, they are themselves evidence of the profound and new concern, felt by the United States for its own organization and growth, that characterizes the era. Their number is legion, their types may be illustrated by the "American Historical Review," the "Political Science Quarterly," the "Quarterly Journal of Economics," the "Journal of Political Economy," the "American Journal of International Law," the "American Journal of Political Science," and the "American Journal of Sociology." Each of these owes its origin to the specialized interests of some class of scholars, and each contains scholarly studies of various aspects of contemporary affairs. Sounder and better informed than our journalistic sources, many of their articles will long remain standard collections of information. Every teacher should know something of the scope of these reviews and be able occasionally to send his students to one or another for specific purposes.

#### GENERAL PERIODICALS.

(5) In no way does the new period show its tendency and taste more definitely than in the periodicals that it supports. In addition to the output of technical journals above mentioned, most of which

deal with subjects ignored and unrecognized before the Civil War, the lay public has called for new weeklies and monthlies that should avail themselves of modern inventions and distribute a new variety of information and entertainment. "Harper's Weekly" is almost the only journal of this type that antedates our period, and its ups and downs have been a matter of interest to thoughtful opinion throughout the generation. The "Nation," founded by Godkin at the close of the Civil War, has drawn continuously upon the best critical journalistic writing of the country. "Collier's," "Leslie's," the "Literary Digest," the "Independent," the "Outlook," the "Survey," and the "New Republic" will rank among the best sources for the historian, and will refresh and inspire students of these years. The monthlies, with less news, have often more serious contributions than the weeklies and bear a direct testimony as to the currents of thought and interest. No single periodical can express the standards of a people that supports the "Nation" and the "Saturday Evening Post," the "Atlantic Monthly" and the "Cosmopolitan."

Filling out the stories of the weeklies and monthlies, the daily newspapers will aid every student of recent history. Read in single issues, the old papers seem barren and empty; but read in sequence by months or years, the non-essentials drop away, leaving before the reader a clear picture of those facets of society that the paper was willing or able to see. For no period are the external facts of history so well established or the general sources so clear and definite as for the present because of the daily press.

#### GOVERNMENT DOCUMENTS.

(6) The growth of democracy has revealed itself in a desire for more intimate knowledge of public affairs, which a flood of government documents has tried to satisfy. These are in part the "working papers" of Legislatures, and in part the direct response of government to curiosity. Probably we knew more about the Spanish War or the Panama recognition within five years than was learned in a century about the affairs of the Revolution. The public documents of the United States abound in useful historical compilations, as illustrated by Richardson's "Messages and Papers of the Presidents," Thorpe's "Charters, Constitutions, and Organic Laws," and Moore's "Digest of International Law." The regular files of annual official reports are supplemented by special accumulations such as those of the Industrial Commission of 1898, the Monetary Commission of 1908, the Commission on Industrial Relations of 1913. These, like the various railway and trust investigations of the eighties, are all monuments to the zeal of government in gathering facts for the use of itself and its constituents.

In large measure the materials for the last half century are similar in type to those that exist for all time. They differ chiefly in degree and proportion from those of earlier periods. They are more voluminous; they are more self-conscious; they contain fewer

original, personal documents; and they have not yet cooled off and undergone the shrinkage that accompanies this process. But the cool-minded historian can and must use them, and must shape his work to his materials.

When the teacher has got his view of his materials, and has realized their capabilities and limitations, he is ready to face the fundamental *teaching* difference that the new period presents. Its great events, in large measure, are not yet finished, but are still in process. The teacher may start along many parallel lines of information without journeying to the end of any of them. In addition to his statement of basic facts his work must be one of analysis, resolving public acts and consciousness into their component elements; then of definition, so that his student may see the problems clearly and recognize them at sight; then of carrying down to date one movement or another, with the idea of leaving the student at the end of the course ready to read and understand to-morrow's paper. The teaching must have a utilitarian purpose different from that of other history courses or earlier parts of the United States history course.

#### SELECTION OF FACTS.

The groups of facts to be included in our recent history course need to be carefully pruned and related. The growing conviction among teachers is that we teach too much in history, and scatter our attention too widely. Here, when we are working toward the definite end of connecting the past and present, it is specially important to deal with as few concepts as possible, to go into each as far as is practicable, and to select them with reference to their interrelation in the structure of modern society.

Five main groups of facts in recent history seem to stand out as essential, and if the teacher can cover them adequately in the ten or twelve weeks devoted to this section of the course, little more need be asked of him. They include A, Political Narrative and Foreign Relations; B, Communication; C, Trusts; D, Tariff, and E, Finance, and all call for analysis, definition, and continuity in treatment.

#### POLITICAL NARRATIVE AND FOREIGN RELATIONS.

The most conventional and stereotyped method of treating American history recognizes almost exclusively what is after all a useful view of development. The presidential administration is a unit in American history that has the public attention, that coincides with the periodicity of Congress, and that is a fact of general knowledge. The teacher may well enter upon the recent field with a drill in national politics, the class may take up those groups of facts, be letter perfect in the dry bones of the subject. Not only ought he to insist on their knowledge of the basic facts of each election, but he ought to give some training in the handling of the statistics of Congress and of votes. He ought to attach issues to candidates and, so far as is possible, enliven abstract issues with personalities. The various campaigns

ought to stand out before his eyes and those of the class—the "party manoeuvring" campaigns like 1880 and 1884 as against the "issue" campaigns of 1888 and 1896. The chief achievements of each administration ought to be attached to its president, and foreign relations ought to appear in their normal chronological sequence.

If the United States had ever had a consistent foreign policy or a trained diplomatic service it might be possible and wise to treat these relations as separate topics. But, in fact, these have been only piecemeal, and only occasionally they have diverted public attention from economic development and national party politics. The treaty of Washington and the resulting arbitrations left the public cold. The Irish and the pork controversies never received full national attention. Once in a while the Monroe Doctrine has had temporary vogue, and for two years in the nineties questions relating to Cuba and the Spanish war really diverted the public from its internal matters. But from 1865 to 1914 the striking fact of American foreign policy was its disconnection with the public consciousness. And its episodes may thus be studied as incidental to the rote material of chronological sequence.

#### COMMUNICATION.

With the student familiar with the externals of politics, the class may take up those groups of facts that have made the modern America, and the first of these has to do with communication. Few of the textbooks treat at all, not to say adequately, the train of events involved in (1) the building of the continental railways, (2) the development of the great systems, (3) the rise of an idea of control, beginning with the States and ending a first chapter in the Interstate Commerce Act of 1887, (4) the acceptance of the control idea, and (5) the more or less co-operative study of railroad economics now under way by railroads, State and Federal Governments. None of these facts is impossible of understanding by a high school senior and there can be no comprehension of America without them. What the text-book does not do, the teacher must do himself. The main furrow will suggest places for lateral furrows, and the student will get a glimpse of city concentration, and daily papers going into country homes, and telegraph and telephone, and of all the agencies that have made a society increasingly mobile for forty years, and have made possible the recognition of class and group concepts through personal contacts. But only a glimpse of these can be given to the student, for he is too young, time is too short, and the *sine qua non* is the railroad problem which is the main thread. A real understanding of modern communication makes it easy to step into

#### TRUSTS AND BIG BUSINESS.

Railways and politics will involve an expansion of ideas developed earlier in the year, but the trusts are a new problem, determined in time of birth by the distributive system—railroads, etc.—without

which unified management could have little commercial value. The large idea of the trusts comprehends phases and sections somewhat as follows:—(1) American manufactures, (2) trade revival after the panic of 1873, (3) concentration of ownership and management of such businesses as railroads, telegraphs, oil, sugar and whiskey, (4) public recognition of the problem of trusts and the denunciatory and constructive measures resulting therefrom, (5) the Anti-trust Act of 1890 with its enlarged theory of public control, (6) the renewed scientific study of the trust as an economic problem after the panic of 1893, as illustrated by the Industrial Commission of 1898, (7) the great trust boom of 1900-1907, (8) the social consequences of wholesale manufacture and control as shown in standardized articles and disciplined labor, (8) the gradual development of a constructive policy of trust control. Other analyses than this will, of course, suggest themselves to any teacher, according to his own interests, his habitat, or the materials available, but the important thing is for the class to appreciate the economic revolution that has occurred since 1873, and to see how communication and concentration have functioned together and how both have reacted upon the American concept of government. The personalities and interests affected by railroads and trusts, prepare the way for the study of

#### THE TARIFF.

With the tariff, as with many other economic aspects of recent history, the panic of 1873 wipes away most of the threads connecting with the earlier period, and prosperity recurred with the tariff more nearly "out of politics" than it had ever been since 1816. How it came back, what interests advocated or opposed it, how its application affected industry and society, what sorts of argument were used in the struggle, and what the steps in that struggle were, are the aspects in which the students will be most interested. The study must be accompanied by some precise definition of terms such as tariff, free trade, tariff for revenue, protection, and reciprocity, for more than one student—or statesman, for that matter—has been found soberly debating the issue without a remote consciousness of the meaning of his terms. The teacher should see that his class knows his nomenclature, and uses it rightly, that it knows the ups and downs of the long struggle, that he sees how the Republican party gradually became the chief vehicle for tariff propaganda because of its geographical location, the quality of its members, the sectional character of the Democratic attack upon it, and the interlocking of financial interests. It was inevitable that the Republican party, when the tariff revived in the eighties should become its advocate, and that the interlocking principle should weld into one compact mass of conservative opinion and practice most of the financial interests of the United States.

No historian has yet called adequate attention to the significance of the joint stock company which

came into its own when business enterprises, in the forties and fifties, became too large to be swung by private fortunes. Increasingly, the individual became merged into the corporation, whether as owner or as employed, and his interests became those of his normal class. With the employed, the interests and stimuli were personal and immediate, and produced the activities of organized labor, which will be noticed as incidental to most of these major topics. With the owner, the share of stock carried little sense of participation in the business. Absenteeism in ownership, as well as interlocking, became general, and the drifting of capital from labor became marked. The drifting of joint stock capital into an interlocked class, most of whose individuals were Republican in politics, provides an explanation for much of the political history that has been included within the political narrative, as well as for the readiness of the party to wed itself with high and thoroughgoing protection.

The student who has completed his survey of the tariff ought to be able to make briefs for each side of the tariff argument, for it is neither concluded nor ended yet, and a wise teacher will not pronounce upon its absolute value; he ought to know something of each of the great debates since 1873; and to be able to show when and why it became a test of party loyalty.

#### FINANCE AND CURRENCY.

The topic of finance is the last of the "hardy perennials" of American politics, and the most difficult to comprehend. One who reads through any of the great debates falling within our period, whether it be the greenback debate, the resumption debate, the silver debate, or the bank debate, can reach only one conclusion—that most of the debaters were confused in thought, and illogical in process, and wrong in facts. Here, even more than in the tariff topic, definition and analysis are essential to salvation. The teacher himself must be sure that he can define intelligently monometallism and bimetallism, free silver and fiat, seignorage, coinage ratio, and Gresham's law, investment and commercial banking. And he must learn, particularly in the silver debate to distinguish between the arguments of those silver men who wanted free coinage in order to raise the price of silver, and those free silver men who wanted it in order to lower the value of the dollar. Until he is clear in his own mind as to definition, and knows he is clear, he is incompetent to meet his class upon this topic. And he will find intellectual exercise of the highest order in clarifying the concepts of his class. Here, as in the tariff, he need not pronounce a final judgment. Silver was never the panacea that the Populists believed, but it was less than the financial and economic chaos that the gold men thought it would be. The banking system has never been as bad or as good as extremists have alleged. And through the finance, currency, and banking methods, as through a series of distorting glasses, the student must be brought to get a glimpse of society working all the time, accumulating from

year to year, and distributing its capital in productive work. The individuals and the agents should be studied dispassionately, for the student as a coming citizen needs to be informed, and safeguarded against the social quacks who are, on the whole, more likely to offer cure-alls of financial than of any other character. In its main issue the crises of finance come with the periods of financial repentance that follow the panics. The debtors after 1873 saw in the greenbacks their salvation, and the creditors their ruin. As the greenbacks reached par, the debtor remedy turned to silver, and the change in standard in 1873 came under the political microscope; but times were too good in the eighties for silver inflation to become virulent. The suffering in the early nineties brought silver to a crisis, and the ensuing boom period accompanied by gold inflation killed it. But the large problem, of which the currency was a small part, was becoming more visible all the time, and, with the trust period, a recognition of finance in its interlocking forms was spread.

#### CLASS ROOM TECHNIQUE.

The class room methods for use in teaching recent history do not differ greatly from those suitable for any period, since the fundamental peculiarity of the field is its sources and point of view. The aim of most importance is to keep the five or six major topics clearly before the class, and at the same time to drill the class in political narrative. The two tasks are

somewhat at variance with each other. If undue attention is placed upon textbook narrative, the issues will break up into disconnected scraps. Yet if the topics are developed separately there is danger of the student thinking he sees what never has existed—an issue or an institution without an environment.

Methods of teachers who have succeeded in vitalizing this period show wide variation. Some have used the "weekly periodical" method and have been able to use current news items as texts upon which to build topical studies going far back into the sources. They have got their continuity out of the regular reading of the current weekly, supplemented by reviews in the text. Others have more nearly approximated the normal method of history instruction and have kept close to the sequence of the text. There can be no best way, so long as the period, by definition, is one in which the teacher must acquire and select his knowledge for himself. Personality becomes more important than any defined routine.

But although there is no best class-room method, there is a purpose that must dominate the teaching. The range of topics must be kept down to a small number; the knowledge of each topic and its ramifications must become considerable; the relations of the topic as a growing thing to the framework of political life must be kept clear; and above all the un-completed nature of recent history must never be forgotten.

## Recent American History Through the Actors' Eyes

BY PROFESSOR CHARLES R. LINGLEY, DARTMOUTH COLLEGE.

The crop of American political autobiographies that has appeared since the Civil War—much of it in the last twenty years—is of "bumper" magnitude. It has not, on the whole, changed radically the conception of recent American history which the specialist has given us. But for the business man, lawyer, teacher or casual reader who desires to see something of recent American affairs through the eyes of those who acted parts, autobiography is invaluable. Read, say, the "Autobiography of George Dewey," on the battle of Manila Bay, Robert M. LaFollette's "Autobiography," on the beginnings of progressive Republicanism, Andrew D. White's, on the relations between the United States and Germany, and John Sherman's "Recollections of Forty Years," on how the United States recovered itself from the financial strain of the Civil War. Some parts of Admiral Dewey's story are particularly new and stirring.

Among the risks to which the Admiral and his men were exposed in entering Manila Bay, one used to be expressed somewhat as follows: "All foreign ports were closed to them; and the nearest American harbor was eight thousand miles away. Hence, they must either win a decisive victory or else retire to some Chinese or British station, there to remain interned until the conclusion of the war." The Ad-

miral has a different tale to tell. With the assistance of a native, an isolated spot on the coast of China had been selected where temporary repairs could be made and supplies received in case of reverses at Manila. It was felt that China would not be able to enforce the usual obligations of neutrality and that hence the American war vessels would be safe from internment.

Senator Hoar's "Autobiography of Seventy Years" gives a more interesting case of "inside" information. Everybody remembers that the Sherman anti-trust law of 1890 forbade "Every contract, combination in the form of trust or otherwise, or conspiracy, in restraint of trade or commerce among the several States, or with foreign nations. . . ." Few legal matters have been more before the public in recent years than the interpretation of this clause of the Sherman law. Did the act mean to forbid absolutely *every* contract in restraint of trade whether reasonable or unreasonable, large or small, incidental or primary? On the one hand, the words of the statute seemed to admit of but one interpretation—the strict one. On the other hand, the practice under the English common law, which likewise forbade such restraints, was to except those which were reasonable and incidental. The Supreme Court, in 1896, held

to the strict literal meaning of the phrase, in the case *United States v. The Trans-Missouri Freight Association*: "When, therefore, the body of an act pronounces as illegal every contract . . . in restraint of trade . . . the plain . . . meaning of such language is not limited to that kind of contract alone which is in unreasonable restraint of trade, but all contracts are included in such language, and no exception . . . can be added without placing in the act that which has been omitted by Congress."

That was in 1896. Senator Hoar, writing his autobiography a few years later, claims that he was the author of the Sherman law, as a member of the Committee on Judiciary of the Senate. He then goes on as follows: "It was expected (by the committee) that the Court, in administering that law . . . (would treat) the words 'agreements in restraint of trade' as having a technical meaning, such as they are supposed to have in England. The Supreme Court . . . went in this particular farther than was expected." It is far from sure that Senator Hoar, unaided, was the author of the Sherman law, but it cannot be doubted that the remainder of his recollection is substantially correct.

When former Senator Stewart of Nevada published his "Reminiscences" in 1908, he gave a circumstantial account of how he and two other gentlemen, including Chief Justice Chase, called upon Andrew Johnson on April 15, 1865. The latter was to take the oath of office in succession to Abraham Lincoln who had died early that morning. "In a few minutes," Stewart asserts, "Johnson came in, putting on a very rumpled coat, and presenting the appearance of a drunken man. He was dirty, shabby, and his hair was matted, as though with mud from the gutter, while he blinked at us through his squinting eyes, and lurched around unsteadily. He had been on a 'bender' for a month. As he came into the room we were all standing. Johnson felt for a chair and sat down."

A little investigation uncovers the fact that Chief Justice Chase recorded in his diary, April 15, 1865, that he went to see Mr. Johnson and found him "calm apparently, but very grave." The diary of the Secretary of the Navy, Gideon Welles, for the same day, records that there was a cabinet meeting at noon at which Johnson "deported himself admirably." As against definite entries in two separate diaries concerning a certain morning's events, a recollection printed sixty-three years later only goes to show that it is not impossible to recollect things that never happened!

This reflection is not the only one that may be made about the frailties of writers of reminiscences. For example, in reading the "Autobiography of Andrew D. White" one would hardly value equally his account of the Peace Conference of the Hague in 1899 and his explanation of the relations between Admiral Dewey and Admiral von Diederichs in Manila in 1898. On the former subject he is authoritative, as he was president of the American delegation. On the latter he makes about the same guess that any-

body might make. Again, autobiographical material has its limits in that most of it has been written by Republicans who are northerners and, predominantly, northeasters. Their point of view often needs a counter-irritant. And still again, the interest of writers of recollections falls off as they reach recent times. Thurlow Weed in his "Autobiography" has three chapters entitled "1861-1880," but he fails to get beyond the Civil War. L. E. Chittenden has entitled his book "Personal Reminiscences 1840-1890," but in the course of the narrative he reached Lincoln and the war. The character of the "Great Emancipator" formed so agreeable a subject for his pen that he never reached the region beyond. S. S. Cox has entitled his recollections "Three Decades of Federal Legislation 1855-1885," but as a matter of fact he gave almost no attention to anything that has happened since reconstruction days.

The necessity which some writers seem to labor under of proving themselves to have been in the right is another factor which needs corrective. An example of this is found in those chapters of Admiral Schley's "Forty-five Years under the Flag" which deal with his operations around Cuba. The judicious reader will also scan thoughtfully Mr. Roosevelt's estimates of his own accomplishments and of the motives of those who disagree with him, as he relates them in his "Autobiography." And, as Mr. Roosevelt says in the preface to his book, "Naturally there are chapters of my autobiography which cannot now be written." Yet now and then, as in the case of Mr. Roosevelt and Mr. Barnes of New York, a political falling out tears open the letter files and spreads some of the unwritten chapters before the public gaze.

Reminiscences are not, of course, to be used to obtain such information as the contents of treaties and acts of Congress, statistics like census figures, dates, precise quotations from recorded speeches, the exact words or even the exact substance of conversation which occurred many years ago. Take Blaine's "Twenty Years of Congress." Much of the material there given may better be found, by the specialist, in the Congressional Record, but for the average man, who desires to get an interesting and not offensively scientific account of Congress after the war, Blaine is good reading. Even more valuable are the personal opinions which Mr. Blaine gives. There is his estimate of the attitude of the American people toward a presidential third term. In speaking of the attempt to nominate General Grant, in 1880, for a third time, Mr. Blaine says: "There was no fear that General Grant would refuse a trust, however frequently or however long he might be invested with it. But the limit of two terms had become an unwritten part of the code of the Republic, and the people felt that to disregard the principle might entail dangers which they would not care to risk." And again, many autobiographies are not worth reading completely. Most people will not find it worth while to drill through all of Senator John Sherman's two corpulent volumes of "Recol-

lections" or to read everything that Senator Hoar has to say about the celebrities of Worcester County, charming though it all is.

For anybody whose ideas are somewhat "set," it is refreshing to get an entirely new view-point, personally put, unusual or local idiosyncracies. Take these, for example, from the "Reminiscences" of Senator Stewart. He declares that he became a candidate for the senate in 1886 because John Sherman had "clandestinely" and criminally "smuggled the silver dollar out of the list of coins" (although, by the way, not explaining why a "crime" committed in 1873 did not arouse his righteous ire until 1886!) To Stewart, Sherman was "shrewd, cunning, and unscrupulous," and yet this is the same Sherman that Americans are accustomed to rank with Hamilton, Gallatin and Chase as our greatest secretaries of the treasury. The Sherman silver law of 1890, Stewart thought, "gave great relief and created comparative good times;" silver is the "honest money" and the "designing few" have kept secret the fact that "any material upon which the edict of the Government may be stamped . . . is money." Already the echoes of the free silver campaign have so far died away that it is hard to believe that Stewart's now discredited creed received an enthusiastic following.

This self-same Stewart, by the way, unconsciously gives, in his pages, a pretty clear notion of his own characteristics—and, doubtless, these were typical of the far westerner of the generation about 1850 when Stewart first went to California. He was brave, resourceful, robust, shrewd, loyal to his friends, a hater of his opponents, not bothered in political contests by overmuch conscience, fond of whiskey, extremely proud of the West, and not morbidly modest in telling about his own accomplishments. Picture Senator Hoar who served in the upper house of Congress contemporaneously with Stewart. Read the former's chapter, entitled: "Personalities in Debate" which relates the bloody combats into which the good senator got with his colleagues. It bulks two pages long and relates two incidents, in one of which the senator got the better of his opponent by an apposite classical illusion! And then turn to Stewart's story of his friend who got into difficulties likely to result in his expulsion from the senate. A caucus was to meet to discuss the offense. Desperate measures seemed to be necessary, as the decision of the caucus was expected to be against the senator's friend. Stewart thereupon pre-arranged (or, as would be said in sporting circles, "framed-up") a fight. The fight was "pulled off," in the caucus, and in the excitement attendant upon it, the contemplated expulsion was lost sight of. Or compare the most "imminent" danger which the New Englander ever met—he was once *nearly* chased by a bull—with Stewart facing a mob of Nevada miners who had condemned him to be hung. One who reads these two autobiographies will see why a great many people went west in the middle of the century and, incidentally, why a great many others did not.

Another interesting picture of western life is that given by General Philip H. Sheridan in his "Personal Memoirs." After General Sheridan was relieved of duty in Louisiana in 1867, he was sent to Fort Leavenworth in Kansas, where much of his attention was absorbed in Indian fighting. The restlessness of the younger braves, the offenses of the red-men—generally called by their "spade" names—the vast herds of buffalo, the rivers of the plains filling up with torrents of water after a rain, but drying up so quickly and leaving "only an occasional pool without visible inlet or outlet," the suffering of the troops fighting the Indians in the dead of winter—all these are recounted with the vivid coloring that only an eye-witness can give. Or take this little picture. An officer and a small group of men have been separated from the rest of the forces during an attack on an Indian village. They do not return. A scouting party is sent out to relieve them if they are still alive. At length they are found. "The poor fellows were all lying within a circle of not more than fifteen or twenty paces in diameter, and the little piles of empty cartridge shells near each body showed plainly that every man had made a brave fight."

The admiration of these autobiographers for the Republican party amounts to worship. Doubtless the key to political history during the last fifty years is to be found in the Republican party—in its traditions, organization, leaders and principles. This is far from saying that one approves of all that the party has done, but since it has, on the whole, been in control of affairs since the war, its record is the central thread in the purely political history of the last half century. Most people are familiar with the cold facts concerning each of these points, but the cold facts leave out the devotion to party which has made the North predominantly Republican. "I became of age," says Senator Hoar, "at just about the time when the Free Soil Party, which was the Republican party in another form, was born. In a very humble capacity I stood by its cradle. It awakened in my heart in early youth all the enthusiasm of which my nature was capable, an enthusiasm which from that day to this has never grown cold. No political party in history was ever formed for objects so great and noble. And no political party in history was ever so great in its accomplishment for liberty, progress and law." "The Republican Party, whatever its faults, since it came into power in 1860 has been composed in general of what is best in our national life. States like Massachusetts and Vermont, the men of the rural districts in New York, the survivors and children of the men who put down the Rebellion and abolished slavery, saved the Union, and paid the debt and kept the faith, and achieved the manufacturing independence of the country, and passed the homestead laws, are on that side, and in general they give and will hereafter give direction to its counsels. On the other hand their antagonist has been, is, and for an indefinite time to come will be, controlled by the foreign population and the criminal classes of our

great cities, by Tammany Hall, and by the leaders of the solid South."

Full of overstatement as all this is, it tells the foundation of the amazingly strong hold of the Republican party on New England. Senator Hoar believed those words and so did thousands upon thousands of other New Englanders with a crusader-like enthusiasm.

Reading a few brisk autobiographies uncovers the prime importance of leadership. The modern tendency in the writing of history is to describe too much the history of institutions and too little the history of mankind. On the whole, the historians are right in this. An institution like the English cabinet, the Supreme Court or the Republican party is infinitely greater than any individual, and in the history of the institution we may see the story of the aspirations and purposes of a multitude of people. But it is easily possible to overdo this modern tendency. On the other hand, nobody will urge a return to the blind hero-worship of Carlyle, George Bancroft and John Fiske. Not every one of the "Fathers" was a Hercules of a statesman because he chanced to sign the Declaration of Independence or speak in the Constitutional Convention of 1787! But the institution is a dead thing unless it be linked to the personalities that made it. An institution is not an independent entity that goes on without human direction.

But whatever may be the ideal degree of emphasis which the specialist should put upon the history of institutions, the general reader wishes frequently to see the influence of the great leaders. He is not satisfied to read of the Supreme Court as a great institution—of its jurisdiction, the numbers of judges, precedents and grades of courts, and there stop. He wishes all these things, and the personality of John Marshall besides. He is unwilling to close the discussion of the political parties with slavery, tariff and the gold standard. He desires to understand something of the personalities of Lincoln, Sumner, Hoar, Sherman, Blaine, Cleveland, Roosevelt and a host of others.

The present-day estimate of the character and ability of Mr. Cleveland is so different from that expressed by the great number of his contemporaries that it seems as if two different persons must be involved. John Sherman, writing in his "Recollections," in 1891, said: "The administration of Mr. Cleveland settled nothing but the sublime egotism of Mr. Cleveland, his opposition to the protective policy, his want of sympathy for the Union soldiers and his narrow notions of finance and the public credit. He devised nothing and accomplished nothing." Our out-spoken Nevada Stewart declared that Mr. Cleveland "deliberately proceeded to create the panic of 1893;" that his second administration was "probably the worst administration that ever occurred in this or any other country;" and, saddest of all, he says that he stopped smoking on the night the people elected Cleveland president because "I did not want to increase the revenues during his administration by pay-

ing duty on cigars." One wonders whether Mr. Cleveland knew of this calamity, and if so, how he was able to bear up under the strain!

Only in recent years have increasing numbers of thoughtful people put a sane and appreciative estimate upon the only democratic president between Buchanan and Wilson. Much of his obstinacy is seen to have been courage; his insistence upon tariff reform proves to have been the morning star of the Underwood-Simmons act; his treachery to the cause of silver becomes advocacy of a sound monetary system; his "want of sympathy for the Union soldiers," a brave protest against an abuse yet to be met with fearless sanity.

And there is Ben: Perley Poore and his "Perley's Reminiscences of Sixty Years in the National Metropolis." (And by the way, has any investigator ever satisfactorily explained why Mr. Poore punctuated his name so oddly?) One will never go to his pages for any considerable amount of historical accuracy, but now and then he tells a story or draws a portrait that is not without interest. Here is one of Senator Allan G. Thurman of Ohio, Cleveland's running mate in the election of 1888 and known sometimes as the "noble old Roman," taking active part in a senatorial debate. He is waving his red bandana handkerchief like a guidon, giving his nose a trumpet blast, taking a pinch of snuff, dashing into the fray, dealing rough blows and then going out to get a drink of whiskey. Or there is one of President Chester A. Arthur, a man who is only recently getting the recognition that he has long deserved. Mr. Arthur usually wore "in his office a Prince Albert coat, buttoned closely in front, with a flower in the upper button-hole and the corner of a colored silk handkerchief visible from a side pocket." Or there is Senator Hoar's account of Judge David Davis, near presidential candidate in 1872 and near member of the electoral commission in 1876, who was so huge that, according to the newspaper men, he had to be surveyed for a pair of trousers! And where else than in Mr. Poore's "Reminiscences" shall we discover that President Cleveland, when he kissed the Bible at the time of his inauguration, touched his lips to verses 5-10, inclusive, of the 112th Psalm? Surely that fact bulges with historical importance!

And so, despite the fact that autobiographers sometimes record the puerile, reminiscences often serve to enliven history as few other sources of information can do. And aside from the illustrative anecdotes which Blaine and Sherman, Roosevelt and LaFollette have to offer, and more important than any of these, are the pictures they draw of themselves. I have already mentioned the picture of Stewart which Stewart draws. Equally intimately may one come to know the other autobiographers of the period of American history which is most significant to the modern reader.

Some of our recent autobiographers also throw light on two of the greatest riddles of modern political life. Why do reformers have such difficulty in achieving their ends? And why were such spoils-

men as, for example, Quay of Pennsylvania, tolerated and even honored so long? Here is a typical sample of what Thomas C. Platt has to say of the reformer type, in his autobiography. Speaking of the reformer Governor Hughes, Platt declares: "As for Hughes, he is too much of an idealist to suit me. I have never had any use for a man who, after accepting honors from his party, assumes to be bigger and better than the party, and strives to wreck it. . . . While pretending to fight bossism, he developed during his first term as the greatest boss that ever sat in the Executive Chamber. . . . He sought to make two hundred men, elected to represent respective constituencies all over the State, mere 'rubber stamps.'" Nor did the reformers commend themselves much better to men of a stamp different from that of Mr. Platt. "I had already had some exasperating experiences with the 'silk stocking' reformer type," says Mr. Roosevelt, ". . . the gentlemen who were very nice, very refined, who shook their heads over political corruption . . . but who were wholly unable to grapple with real men in real life. They were apt vociferously to demand 'reform' as if it were some concrete substance, like cake, which could be handed out at will . . . if only the demand were urgent enough." And on another occasion, "There is a lunatic fringe to every reform movement." Mr. Roosevelt's judgment suggests that although the reformer may have added to his faith, virtue, and to his virtue, knowledge, he did not always add to his knowledge, temperance, patience and charity, or, if the Holy Writ may be adapted to the needs of modern readers, efficiency.

The autobiographers also give an answer to the Quay riddle. It is one of the elementary facts of human history that men may be the veriest tyrants in business or political life, but have such charming social or personal characteristics that men who meet them only in social and personal ways are astounded that they should be counted among the wicked. It is to autobiography that we must go for the best of this personal material. Mr. Roosevelt, for example, speaks with friendly warmth of Mr. Quay as a man "who, whatever his faults, had in his youth freely risked his life for a great ideal, and who when death was already clutching his breast had spent almost his last breath on behalf of humble and friendless people."

Is it odd that Mr. Platt gives a memorable estimate of Mr. Quay? Besides mentioning the latter's scholarly qualities, he continues: "He could and did win the greatest and hardest battles with or without money. . . . He believed that business men had a right to profit, and therefore could always command money in any amount when he desired it. When, on the other hand, he discovered that the money of special interests in special campaigns had been raised against him, he was accustomed, as he put it, to 'raise the fiery cross' and go to the people direct. The secret of his success . . . was in finding out how many voters he had with him, and if he did not

have enough, find where he could get them; and then he got them."

Such autobiographies as those of Mr. Roosevelt and Mr. LaFollette throw an extremely interesting light on men still active in national affairs, an unusual circumstance, as men ordinarily write their memoirs after they have retired from activity. The former's account of himself fairly bristles with illustrations. Take, for example, his comparison between the Jackson-Lincoln type of president, in which he places himself, and the Buchanan type, in which he places Mr. Taft; or his dictum defending his method of obtaining the Panama Canal strip: ". . . it is hypocrisy, alike odious and contemptible, for any man to say both that we ought to have built the canal and that we ought not to have acted in the way we did act; . . . ;" or his courageous and winning combats in a score of instances, such as his attack on corrupt business influence in politics. Or read Brand Whitlock's "Forty Years of It," and get an entirely new slant on the personality and character of John P. Altgeld, the much condemned governor of Illinois, who pardoned the imprisoned participants in the Haymarket bomb affair.

The late Senator Platt's "Autobiography" is a bright light thrown on actual government in the United States. Usually autobiographies have been written by men of the type of George F. Hoar, Edward Everett Hale, Gen. O. O. Howard and Andrew D. White on the one hand, or Admiral Schley, General Sheridan and Admiral Dewey on the other. That of Senator Platt is a novel one. It is a most interesting definition of the "machine" and machine methods. One sample of the sort of thing that Platt took pride in will suffice.

Roscoe Conkling and Thomas C. Platt resigned from the senate in 1881, because President Garfield did not keep what they understood to be a pledge that their element of the Republican party in New York should be paramount in all questions touching patronage. Warner Miller was Platt's successor in the senate, and apparently no affection was lost between them. In 1888 President-elect Harrison was picking his cabinet. Mr. Platt desired to be secretary of the treasury, but was not chosen. He tells the rest of the story: "I had something to do with preventing the selection of one man who had set his heart on the same office; that was Warner Miller. Soon after the election, I was notified that the Union League Club of New York City was to meet and indorse Warner Miller for Secretary of the Treasury. . . . I was not a member of the Union League Club. I was not known to possess many friends there. The few I had, however, got together. Though Joseph H. Choate, afterward Ambassador to Great Britain, had in his pocket a resolution indorsing Miller for the Secretaryship of the Treasury, it was never offered. Choate, never known to bother much about the details of politics, arrived at the meeting late. Some one whispered to him that a canvass of the members showed a majority of the members

against Miller, and that it would be ridiculous to submit a resolution unless its adoption could be assured. Choate quit." That is an unusual thing, to say the least, for a man to write about himself in his final summing up of his career.<sup>1</sup>

Time would fail to tell of all the Levi P. Mortons and Theodore Roosevelts that Mr. Platt claims to have had decisive influence in nominating or electing. Nobody would dream, of course, of supposing that Mr. Platt is more accurate in estimating the extent of his influence than other old men are when writing their recollections. Nevertheless, other evidence goes to show that Mr. Platt was substantially the sort of politician that he claims to have been. Witness a letter of Mr. Lemuel E. Quigg brought out in the recent Roosevelt-Barnes libel suit. The organ-

ization leaders, says Mr. Quigg, declare: "We are organization men and we will support you (Senator Platt) as the leader of the organization. We will cast our votes for any ticket that you recommend. If you say 'Black,' we will be for Black; if you (say) 'Roosevelt,' we will be for Roosevelt. We prefer Roosevelt."

The last word regarding the dangers of relying over much upon recollections is hinted at in the title of Edward Everett Hale's two volumes, "Memories of a Hundred Years." Human memory is not to be trusted for so great a strain. Nevertheless, one will find much of interest and profit in recent American autobiography, who reads with open eyes and critical mind. But then, the newspapers give us plenty of practice in reading more than we believe.<sup>2</sup>

## Classroom Treatment of Recent Events in Europe and America<sup>3</sup>

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A few months before the opening of the present war I was walking in a suburb of Paris with my little daughter. We were passing the house of one of the greatest of modern French artists, and I pointed out the north-wing-studio in which, as I told her, he was probably at that very moment painting a picture. Her reply sums up much of the academic attitude toward recent events. "But, father!" she said, "All the great artists are dead."

Most American students pass their school days, and I am ashamed to say, their university days also, in the simple faith that history is merely the embalmed record of dead men; and many of them wish that these dead men were like those of the penny dreadfuls, who tell no tales!

You, however, have asked us here to discuss a problem, the very statement of which is an encouragement—"Classroom Treatment of Recent Events in Europe and America"—you evidently mean that it shall be impossible in future to read such editorials as that which appeared in the New York "Times" of January 12th, last, entitled "Collegians on War," in which it was pointed out that students of Bowdoin and New York universities had been shown by actual test to be profoundly ignorant of the very names of men and places which to-day occupy the center of the world's stage. The editor's attack upon the weak points in our system of historical training we must accept with gratitude, for the newspapers are the gages of public opinion, and we should be blind leaders, indeed, if we did not wish to have our attention directed to things which the public regards as

wrong in our educational system. We do not, however, agree with the opinion expressed that "even with all the inaccuracies, guesses, lies, censorships, we dare say the contemporary daily record is just about as faithful to the facts as the solemn fiction, ceremoniously called 'history.'" If we believed that we should straightway get to work with a large pair of shears and clip the proper columns from the newspapers of each epoch, bind them into volumes, and administer them to our students, instead of giving ourselves to the laborious process of comparison, selection, criticism and generalization, which precedes the writing of "the solemn fiction." But it is obvious to us that a more trustworthy account can be written after all the evidence is in than when only a small part of it is available. Indeed, if you take the frank statements of fugitive literature itself, you will there find the opinion expressed that the daily paper acts upon the maxim, "print and prove afterward," the weekly "paws over the daily without waiting for the proofs," and the monthly makes the most of uncertain data. "The weekly," says the Review of Reviews, "scratches the surface of the obvious; the monthly plows deeper." But neither plows deep enough to be entitled to claim the dignity of a place beside "the solemn fiction, ceremoniously called 'history.'" It is impossible that narratives concerning current events, even when based upon first-hand information, should as truly interpret the episodes described, as narratives constructed after years have passed, when these episodes can be

<sup>1</sup> It is not intended to suggest that the ruse of Platt's friends had a decisive influence in preventing Miller's elevation—merely that the incident represents his brand of politics.

<sup>2</sup> Paper read before the spring, 1915, meeting of the New England History Teachers' Association.

<sup>3</sup> An address delivered before the New York Conference of the Association of History Teachers of the Middle States and Maryland, February 12, 1916, New York City.

studied in the light of accumulated evidence. Even the testimony of eye-witnesses often proves inadequate and misleading, in the clearer light of later days. Military men are familiar with the stories of how Mr. Ropes frequently corrected the recollections of leading generals of our Civil War by his superior knowledge of events in which they themselves had been the chief actors. He had plowed deep into the varied records, and saw the events through the eyes of a multitude of witnesses.

In saying this, however, I am far from disparaging the value of the study of contemporary events—I believed that every historical course, whether in school or college, should afford vistas, looking not only backward, but forward. I believe that the teacher who teaches classical history alone, or English history alone, or American history alone, fails of the most vital element of his task. Recent events should be studied in the light of the past; and the history of past ages should as undoubtedly be studied in the light of the present. We have passed the period of madness which led teachers to train their students as narrow, ignorant specialists, digging in the dust heaps of tavern yards and calling their gleanings by the very large name, "History." "All the details that throw light on the main action," says "The Gentle Reader," "are of value. Those that obscure it are but petty dust. It is no sufficient plea that the dust is very real and that it took a great deal of trouble to collect it." We have had enough of the so-called histories of the Town Pump, as some one has quaintly phrased it. There can be no real history without the sweep of cause and effect, without the great inspiring vistas which lend dignity to historical material. Macaulay once declared, "There are miners and there are smiths." The miner, in the historical sense of the term, is the man who collects the raw material; but it does not become history until it has passed through the cunning, fashioning hands of the smith. Current events are not history until they have been wrought into the web and woof of the universal fabric. Until we reach a point at which we can see the end from the beginning, we shall never be able to make history of current events. But we can and must use current events to give interest and value to history. The natural field of interest of the human mind is its own generation; but it is normally not satisfied with the mere present. Man, as distinct from the lower orders of creation, is an animal that looks before and after. It was Aristotle who first taught us to go back and discover how the object of study emerged and developed, in order to reach its existing state. In studying the present in the light of the past, therefore, we are only going back to Aristotle, and in studying the past in the light of the present we are logically extending the process.

We have before us the greatest war of all history. We may study it by giving to our students the facts as the daily press is able to present them. We may insist that they learn the date upon which Austria sent her ultimatum to Servia; how many soldiers

each nation had; how much each had spent per capita upon army and navy; where the first engagements of the war took place; how many men were killed; how many square miles of territory changed hands, etc., etc. All of this is important and of a certain amount of interest in itself; but it is not history. It only becomes history when it has been connected with the processes of which it forms a part. In collecting such data we have only done the work of the miner. We have collected the raw material. We must still do upon it the work of the smith, take the crude product and weld it into the structure already reared. Having the facts, we must interpret them. These are the facts. What do they mean? We cannot tell. No man of wisdom will to-day pretend to answer that question. But there are many wise men who will give an answer to a similar question concerning the ascertained facts of the French Revolution, or of the Franco-Prussian War. And the thoughtful student of the year 2000 will be able to form a rational opinion of what this present war means, because he will be able to see it in perspective. Let us assume that we have all the necessary facts regarding Austria's ultimatum to Servia. It is a supposition contrary to fact, for we all know that the various, fancy-colored books containing the official documents of each country are not complete collections, but skilfully draw briefs and that there will be many "missing links" discovered as the years roll around. But even if we had all of the essential facts before us to-day, we should not be able to place that critical incident in its proper place, as a skilful smith places his finely wrought bar of iron in his structure, for we do not yet know what the structure is to be. Perhaps we are on the verge of some new discovery in statecraft. Perhaps we are to see, as the result of this war, a combination of nations to prevent wholesale killing in the future. It would be regarded by some nations as a "combination in restraint of trade," but the Supreme Court of Civilization would, doubtless, declare it constitutional; and then any nation would attempt to nullify it at its peril. The real meaning of an important historical event is often hid from its own generation. To the men who watched the scene upon the sloping crest of Golgotha, it was and could only be an incident of the application of an oriental criminal code. To the world of a few generations later it was the dawn of a new era, an incident from which the calendar of the Christian world was to date all earlier events. When Charles the Hammerer hurled back the Saracens at Tours, the chroniclers, even those who knew all the available facts, wrote down their futile and unmeaning words, with never a glimmer of what had been wrought before their eyes. And so it has been in every age of history. Columbus, as he crossed the ocean, seemed to possess all the available facts; yet he died in utter ignorance of what his own heroic exploit meant. Any child in the lowest class of your high school knows more of the meaning of that epoch-making

voyage than did Columbus and all the jealous nobles and philosophers of the Court of Spain.

You cannot, therefore, properly put current events upon the same footing with serious, carefully written history, but you can employ current events as a means of enlivening and adding vital interest to the pages which justly take the name of history. Your newspapers speak of Germany's ideal of establishing a world empire. Now, one of the characteristics of the human mind is a natural interest in analogies and resemblances. Here, therefore, is a chance to interest the student in those epochs of history when ambition for world empire has dominated. We can show them Cyrus the Great, Alexander, and Augustus, the Saracens, the Medieval Papacy, Charlemagne, and Napoleon. In the light of a thrilling current topic, those great efforts at a world domination assume a reality which they could not have if presented merely as the embalmed records of a dead past.

Again, the children hear in their homes, and read in their weekly or monthly text, of the meaning of German *Kultur*. If you can use the interest thus aroused to instruct them in its ancient Athenian prototype, in the attempt of Pericles to spread Hellenic culture over the world of his day, you have modernized the ancient, and given life and vitality to the dead past. You can show how the other Greek cities rejected the proffered culture at the point of the sword, thus giving rise to the Peloponnesian War, and the fall of the cultured city tyrant.

Or suppose that in his reading of current events the pupil happens upon accounts of the conflict between capital and the labor organizations striving for recognition. This will seem to him peculiarly modern, but when he is given the backward vista upon this subject, he sees its counterpart even in remote ages. He will be interested to learn that in ancient Rome the plebs protected themselves by what was in fact a strike. They left the city in a body, and retired to the Sacred Mount, there to wait until their organization was recognized. "The Secession to the Sacred Mount," says the English classical scholar in his brilliant work upon the City State, ". . . was a strike on a grand scale, and in a State instead of a private undertaking." When the strike was broken by mutual concessions, he adds, "the plebs returned to Rome . . . to fight a long series of political battles, under leaders now definitely recognized by the whole State."

The initiative, the referendum, and the recall are likely to be regarded by students as ideas new to politics. Even the leaders of thought sometimes make the mistake of referring to them in terms which confirm this impression. Of the referendum, President Lowell recently declared, "It is too early to say what the effect of the institution will be. A generation must pass before that can be determined." That is true, if we regard it as a new institution; but the backward vista gives us the very interesting fact that all three institutions were patiently tried and deliberately abandoned by the people of Ancient Rome. "The Romans," as Professor Abbot has

pointed out, "practiced the recall a century or more, and direct legislation was a part of their system of government even longer." "The recall," he adds, "had a shorter history. It is confined mainly to the last century of the Republic." Such instances might be multiplied indefinitely, and by means of them a student may be led to regard the past not as something apart from the daily life about him, but as a vast storehouse of knowledge bearing upon the problems of his own generation.

It is no small revolution which has taken place in the methods of historical teaching. Thousands of teachers all over the land are using current literature as the starting point and pivotal center of education. "The Independent" reports that in the year 1913-14 only sixty instructors used that periodical as a classroom help, but that in this current year it is being used by 2,500. Numbers of other periodicals make similar announcements. Lists of suggestive topics of study in a wide range of fields are prepared each week by these great metropolitan journals and are circulated throughout the nation. The "New York Times" publishes a monthly current history magazine of 220 odd pages, containing important documents, speeches, interviews and articles bearing upon all sides of human activity. It is a vast fountain of history in the making, and is rapidly eradicating the reproach of American education, that it does not touch daily life and the great pulsing heart of humanity.

Moreover, willingly or reluctantly we must sooner or later reconcile ourselves, as teachers, to the fact that most of our pupils will never become scholars, delving deep into real books. It is something if we can make these students intelligent observers of the currents of their own times. Antiquarian interests are not easily implanted in youth; but youth is so constituted as to respond joyously to anything which breathes the life about it. It will seize with avidity upon a map to learn where our "boys in blue"—no longer in blue but in khaki—demanded a salute from the Mexican guns, and demanded in vain; while they will open the same book languidly and reluctantly to discover the mere geographical fact of the location of San Juan de Ulúa. They will search the Constitution to find the clause that gave President Wilson power to order the troops to Vera Cruz, when that same bit of knowledge will seem dull and uninspiring if only serving as one of a long list of impersonal items labeled,

"Powers of the President."

They will read the "Biglow Papers" with interest if told that they were written as Mr. Dooley writes his "skids," when they would take little interest in them as bits of "mere literature."

I believe that the day of American isolation has passed forever; and with it, I believe, is passing also the ancient idea of a university as a place of cloistered seclusion. The world does not need students trained in cloistered seclusion. It needs men and women with a broad, deep background with which

to approach their own world. It needs institutions to train, not learned pedants, but vital, far-seeing citizens, scholars to whom scholarship means large practical service to mankind. It needs the culture which appreciates the present in the light of the past. We have allowed ourselves to fall into the absurdity of calling the man who knows nothing of the past, an ignorant man, while he who knows as little of the present may be styled a scholar. We should refuse to dignify with this high title any man who fails to marry his knowledge of the past to the present as we should refuse the honorable title of teacher to one who has studied only the past. History teachers and investigators, moreover, are especially susceptible to the latter temptation. They are almost unique in the way in which they have approached their great tasks. Most, if not all, other kinds of investigators start with the present and work backward. The doctor examines the patient before him and then searches the past for similar cases and effective treatments. The lawyer takes the case which is laid before him and works backward to the laws which govern it; but the historian starts in the remote past and tries to work toward the

present, too often falling by the wayside before he has come within hailing distance of his own generation. The general public, however, for whose instruction history is supposed to be written, follows the more rational method. The German question becomes suddenly acute, and the reader of history rushes to the nearest library for the authentic volume upon German history, a book which until that moment has been gathering cobwebs. The Mexican situation takes a new turn, and down come the dusty books which will open the vistas toward the past of Mexico. The Chinese Republic begins to totter, and the oriental alcoves are suddenly the Mecca of the reading public. Librarians can predict the circulation by the headlines in the newspaper.

And so, I hail with joy the movement for the study of recent events, if it means the opening up of an organic connection between the past and the present, realizing that to teach history with no reference to the world around us is like painting a picture with only background, while to use current events to lead back to remote events is painting a complete picture—with background and foreground in their proper proportions.

## Teaching Recent American History

BY R. ESTON PHYFE, HIGH SCHOOL, HARTFORD, CONN.

If we could actually have the whole panorama of past American history, down to recent times, pass before us—and slowly enough to enable us to catch the chief topics of conversation of the most thoughtful and the best informed—we could recognize the period passing at any moment without a chronological placard. The conversation heard would reveal it. We would see but one period with talk significant of the clearing of the forests, the danger of the Indians, the fear of the French. Only one period would show great men lamenting critical weakness in the central government and saying "we are one to-day and thirteen to-morrow." In only one, too, would we see the matter of the extension of slavery causing bitterness and apprehension. Each of these periods of the past has a significant characteristic which would reveal its identity.

Such is our past history. And each period is easily taught because we find, in each, one or two great outstanding meanings.

Now the recent period must have its significant meanings, and although we cannot be sure of them until we reach the height of the future and are privileged to look back, nevertheless, as we are doomed to ever live in the present, we must get our present bearings and a knowledge of our environment and of the forces that control as best we can. Likewise we must gather, for our teaching, from such knowledge what we believe to be the chief meanings of our time, for without them we would be lost on a sea of details—would drift, aimlessly drift. With such chief meanings we may have effective teaching.

Professor Hart, in his *Essentials in American History*, says that the great lessons of American history are embodied in the motto *Liberty, Equality, Fraternity*. Thus Professor Hart singles out the great meaning of American history that he may emphasize it, that he may give it over as the last word, that he may fix it indelibly in mind.

Now what is the chief meaning of our recent American history, next after the one given by Professor Hart for the whole history? What concept shall we make for it? We must base this concept, as it seems to me, on our great national growth and its results. And the most casual survey shows this growth to have been enormous.

Since 1870 our farm products have increased about 400 per cent. in value (\$1,950,000,000-\$9,751,119,000). The same increase has occurred in our manufactured products (\$4,232,000,000-\$20,672,052,000). Our railroad mileage has increased in the same period about 600 per cent. (53,000-369,579.80 miles). And in population and wealth, while we gained, approximately, one-third only, of our growth, during the long period of 263 years from the settlement of Jamestown to 1870, we have gained the other two-thirds during the period of 45 years since 1870 (population, 38,500,000-98,646,491; wealth, \$30,000,000,000-\$107,104,212,000). The daily volume of clearings of the New York Clearing House shows about the same ratio of gain, \$90,274,478-\$296,238,762. I wonder if we realize aught of the mag-

nitude of this tremendous total of present, daily clearings in our national metropolis—substantially \$300,000,000. Here is Worcester (Mass.) with \$172,000,000 of assessed value. Yet all the wealth of property here on the 38½ square miles of Worcester's area is less than five-eighths of the daily business of the New York Clearing House. The number of immigrants that came to us in 1870 was 387,260. The average number for the last decade has been 1,000,000 a year. The number that came last year was 1,218,486, more than seven times the population of the city of Worcester, the thirty-third in size in this country, with its 170,000 people.

Imagine all of these 1,200,000 immigrants coming to us at the same time, instead of scattered through the year—say 2,000 to a ship in the necessary 600 vessels. Imagine these vessels arranged in a column twenty ships wide and thirty deep. Imagine ourselves on a height overlooking the Atlantic and seeing this fleet bearing this great invading host to our shores. What a wonderful sight! How long it would take to count the ships, giving to each only the briefest possible passing glance! No person living or dead ever saw, in reality, such an aggregation of large vessels. And what an enormous body of newcomers, the equivalent in number of 1,200 regiments! These people when they came, had, on the average, but \$25.00, the merest pittance; but, in the aggregate, they had \$30,000,000. And the entry tax of \$4.00 a person must have poured into our national treasury nearly \$5,000,000. But the strangest thing of all about the coming of this host was that it was swallowed up in our immensely greater population so quietly that it was practically unnoticed by our nation.

In 1898 when Fate placed on our national front doorstep a Philippine infant with clothes of Spanish make—for which we saw fit to pay \$20,000,000—we grew in territorial area, in population and in responsibility. Since then we have been fathering this infant with some qualms of conscience, wondering whether we can give to it a full measure of parental love and devotion while denying to it some of the privileges and freedom of our home.

Our country has had a marvelous development since, say 1870, in the growth of our cities, the increase of our Western population, the extension of our railroads, the development of our manufacturing, the making of vast private fortunes, the building up of great corporations and the massing of laborers in large aggregations. Our country's growth along these lines since 1870 has been astounding; perfectly normal and easily explainable, but nevertheless astounding.

But it is not so much the growth that I am thinking of as the consequences of this growth. The above-mentioned developments have brought great problems in their train. And they have given rise to flagrant evils, many of which evils have been possible simply because the developments have been so rapid that current thought has not been able to keep up with them and make laws and regulations for

their control. Our nation since 1870 has outgrown many of its laws, as clearly as any youngster ever outgrew his clothes.

To illustrate, the rapid growth of our cities brought opportunities to the thrifty and farseeing who were able to get most valuable franchises for street railroads or other municipal enterprises for a song, or who profited by getting themselves elected to office and therein seeking chiefly their own benefit. They were able to do this because the voters of the cities were unaware of their civic needs and of their civic possessions. But these city voters roused at last by ill treatment from those to whom they had given their treasures for little or no price, investigated their ills and took measures looking towards municipal reform. However, the recent happenings at Terre Haute and the writhing of New York City, under the control of the State legislature—the city having over half the population, less than half the legislature and paying three-quarters of the taxes of the whole State—with probably thousands of other cases of municipal overturnings or discontent, show that the solution of satisfactory municipal government has not been found—at least for all places.

The rapid settlement of the West carried with it the center of population, sent new forces with new ideas to Congress, and poured back to the East such streams of grain, flour, meat and fruits as brought disaster to New England farmers and changed the very manner of our living.

No such great railway systems ever existed as have been developed in this country since 1870, and no such combinations of capital for industrial purposes were ever formed as have been made in this country during the last forty-five years. And with the great power of these immense organizations have come to their managers temptations such as always come to the strong. And these temptations have led to many alleged and to some real abuses of the public. The press of the country has taken up these matters, politicians have revelled in them, our great national parties have vied with each other in efforts for their reform, suits have been brought against corporations by States and the nation, and the result has been that the country has been stirred to its depths. In this period of disturbance, while unfair business methods have been rooted out, so many reckless and indiscriminate attacks have been made on capital and investors that not only have honest employers of labor been harmed, but great peril has impended over labor itself through a decrease in investments such as give labor employment. However, we trust a wise reaction, fostering every legitimate business, through proper treatment of investors, has begun and is gathering force with the passing months.

This great national growth, with its vast network of ramifying results—the Sherman Anti-trust Act, the Interstate Commerce Act, the public service commissions, the recently formed Federal Trade Commission, etc., etc.—is the leading characteristic, the overshadowing feature of our recent history.

This, therefore, I would make the central feature in the teaching of recent American history. And for the sake of simplicity, for the sake of that clearness which makes for good teaching, I would take this whole complex matter as a single thing: for analysis; for logical study; that our pupils may not be confused by considering its different parts by themselves, but that they may see them clearly in their relations to one another, under the one simple head, *our country's rapid growth and its consequences*.

It has seemed best to have our pupils chart this matter in three parallel columns, placing in the first a list of the things that have had rapid growth, in the second column a list of ill effects resulting from these rapid changes, and in the third, whatever correctives have been made and applied. We believe that the making of such a chart is most helpful to the pupils, that it aids them in thinking around and through the subject, and that they thus fix it in mind as they could not do in any other way. And I believe this chart will not be complete unless there be in the column of things of rapid growth some such statement as "the runaway anger against corporate interests;" in the column of ills "the harming of labor through the frightening and the repression of capital," and in the column of correctives "an awakening to the fact that without capital labor is helpless." I wouldn't compel anyone to make such statements, but I would suggest them, because the foreign-born in our schools who are apparently bred to opposition to capital and employers—at all events are uniformly against them—need such instruction.

Another set of matters which I think should be considered and taken as a unit are those which fall under what I would call *the wider and keener democracy of to-day*. The interests of more classes are considered to-day than ever before. If this be not so, what means the vast amount of thought put upon child welfare, old age pensions, the minimum wage, workmen's compensation, city play grounds, postal savings banks, and other similar matters?

Vast, too, is the amount of scientific advice and assistance now being given by State agricultural colleges, experiment stations and dairy schools, and by the experts of the federal Department of Agriculture, to our farmer folks and others; and more information than formerly is being sent back to our manufacturers and tradesmen by our consuls in foreign lands. And there is a strikingly greater diffusion of democracy now, in our educational institutions, than ever before. This is seen in the efforts made by the colleges to give education to the masses through summer schools, extension teaching and in other analogous ways. Columbia in particular is doing much in this line, "maintaining in eight different cities academic classes which are credited towards the university degree," and having had an enrollment in their summer session last year and their Extension Teaching Department this year of about 11,000 students. And President Butler stands ready, so we read, to establish a night college on the lower east side of New York City. The same demo-

cratic tendency is seen in the act of the Connecticut College for women in placing among its requirements for admission preparation in domestic science. The same broadening educational democracy is seen in our trade, vocational and continuation schools. Yes, our democracy reaches bounds and depths never dreamed of only a few years ago.

And the direct election of United States senators and the bringing forward of such matters as the initiative, the referendum and the recall are chiefly significant, in the fact that the people are crowding up closer to their government and taking a keener interest in it. In matters of government, our range of thought was never so broad and our scrutiny never so keen as they are to-day.

Again, for the sake of the clearness of unity I would group all of the above and kindred subjects under *evidences of a wider and keener democracy*.

Now just as slavery overshadowed our national life from 1820 to 1860, and touched it closely in every part, so our great national growth and the broadening of our democracy have supremely affected our recent history and touched it vitally in every part. And just as when teaching the period of the forty years before the Civil War, we are dominated by the rumblings of the contending elements for and against slavery and the almost constant portents of an impending storm, so, in teaching the recent past, if our eyes are open, we are under the spell of our great and distracting growth and the wider diffusion of democracy.

And what must we consider to-day with special reference to the future? Our imperialism is moving on. The Philippines will not be given over next week or next year. The necessity of future consideration of our responsibilities and interests as a world power is inevitable. For its problems our future citizens should have a good geographical and political knowledge of the Philippines and of the islands between us and them.

Political principles used through long periods of time do not usually die without making numerous struggles, and the matter of a protective tariff will undoubtedly appear again. And, at any rate, our great political parties are very sure of places in at least the near future activities of our country, and their cardinal and contrasting principles should be studied.

Immigration, too, is a matter not only of yesterday and to-day, but of to-morrow as well. Within the lives of many living now, our population will most surely double, and possibly treble; and its increasing magnitude will not only call for as much consideration as to-day, but it will come to be a matter of more and more concern as the future lengthens. This subject should therefore receive the attention it merits.

As our population increases, the need of increasing proportionately our food products will be a vital one, and on this problem in the next and succeeding generations, will bear federal and State conservation, forest renewal, more scientific agriculture and every-

thing which makes for greater productivity, cheaper transportation and a lower cost of living.

Something on the cost and ill effects of war, too, and our real desire for international peace will be appropriate for the future.

In regard to our territories and dependencies, I believe that the pupils should be taught to classify them in whatever way seems easiest for the fixing in mind of the desired facts. We group them under "Territories," "Home Dependencies," "Outlying Dependencies." We wish to direct attention to the territories by themselves, so we put Alaska and Hawaii in a single group. One reason why we do this is that we wish to show that they have the same kind of government and that each has a delegate in Congress. This classification or grouping does not show that Hawaii is insular and that Alaska is on the American Continent, but we believe that the matter of geography is not so important as that of government and that it is not so hard to fix in mind.

The return of the Democratic party to power in 1912, with its subsequent passage of a tariff for revenue only—which has or has not seriously interfered with our national well-being—creates in the minds of many pupils the desire to know when we have had a protective tariff and when we have had one chiefly or wholly for revenue. For this and other reasons we have found it profitable to have the pupils make a chronological list of the presidents and then block off the record into party periods. It is then seen at a glance when and how long each party has held sway, and the blocked-off list forms a fine basis for a consideration of the tariff.

And now as to immigration. We should certainly teach from what countries our immigrants have chiefly come, and in what parts, so far as it can be determined, they have chiefly located. We should show how some foreigners naturally seek the country and some the city.

We should show the proportion of the foreign born to the rest of our population, as to the cities and to the country. The foreign born of the pupils and the others as well take much interest in the fact that in accordance with our last census the foreign born and their children make up more than 50 per cent. of our urban population. The exclusion of the Chinese and the decrease in the number of that nationality in recent years and the immigration of the Japanese and their increase in recent years will of course be taken up. The conditions in foreign countries and here which affect temporarily the flow of immigration, the fact that our foreign born furnish more than their percentage of paupers, that illiteracy is more common among them, and that they show a greater tendency toward insanity can all be considered with much interest and profit—so also can our national precautions against the coming in of the diseased and weak-minded.

Our plan for collateral reading for this recent period—the same as it is for the other periods—is as follows: We assign three pupils to each lesson and give them the three best references for the lesson that

we can find in outside reading. Exact pages for these references are given, and, in general, they are short enough to be read and mastered in a recitation period of say forty-five minutes. The greatest care is taken in the choosing of these outside readings that the pupils may get only what will throw real light on the subject in question, and what it is hoped will give them a love for history. These selections must be easily understood, readable, enjoyable. The pupil hands to the teacher for correction a written digest or outline of what he has read, and generally he is called upon to report orally to the class.

For reference books and collateral reading for this recent history may be mentioned: McLaughlin's History of the American Nation, Hart's Essentials in American History, Forman's Advanced American History, the World Almanac, the Statesman's Year Book, the Encyclopedia Americana—not only for its articles, but for its excellent pictures—the abstract of the last census, with the special State supplement, and McLaughlin's Readings in the History of the American Nation. This last book contains some excellent articles on this particular period, under such subjects as General Industrial Progress of the Country, Causes of Trusts, Immigration, The City, The Direct Primary, etc., selected from many books.

In briefly reviewing what I have so imperfectly sketched, let me say that for general guidance and final resumé in the teaching of our recent history, I would form a concept, and for its chief feature I would take the wonderful development of our country since about 1870, in (1) the rapid settlement of the West; (2) the quick growth of towns and cities; (3) the great increase in our manufacturing, from the small grist mill to the great flouring center, and from the small shop to the large, and to the still larger manufacturing establishments; (4) the rapid transformation of our railroads from a few lines to the great systems, each with its network of roads; (5) the change in the world of labor from the employed few in close personal touch with their employers to the great aggregations of laborers now pouring in and out of places of employment in such vast numbers that knowledge of them individually on the part of the employers is impossible.

This wonderful development, with all its manifold, enriching, permanent blessings, together with its transitional, temporary curses, I would place as conspicuous as possible in the center of the concept. To this chief part of the main idea I would add the very apparent change now in progress towards a wider and keener democracy. And I would join to these those things with which the future will be inevitably concerned—our imperialistic position with its anomalies and its obligations; the urgent need of conserving our national resources; immigration; political parties; our desire for international peace, and last but not least, the heroic national personages of the period.<sup>1</sup>

<sup>1</sup>Read at the meeting of the New England History Teachers' Association, May 1, 1915.

# Journalism as an Aid to History Teaching<sup>1</sup>

BY EDWIN E. SLOSSON, PH.D., LITERARY EDITOR OF "THE INDEPENDENT," ASSOCIATE IN THE SCHOOL OF JOURNALISM, COLUMBIA UNIVERSITY.

My reason for talking to you is to show that you can find in current journalism the method and material for training students in history. By training students in history is, of course, meant the training of students in the making of history out of its raw material, not the reading of history or the remembering of history. The first is so easy that there is no need of teaching it and the second is so difficult that there is no use trying it, for memory is an in-born trait, perhaps, incapable of much improvement.

If the student is to be really educated you must set him to making something as much as if he were in shop or laboratory. Ten years ago I might have been pardoned for devoting some time to urging the importance of the laboratory or source book method of teaching history, but, nowadays, all progressive teachers realize the advantages of it, though they often find it hard to use it. The question of how to use constructive methods must, however, be solved if history is to take the place in education that by rights belongs to it. In my opinion, the main work of most students should be history and sociology, using these words in their widest sense to include the study of man, his past, present and future. This is naturally the most interesting and important group of courses in the entire curriculum. But it is not—to be frank about it—the best from a pedagogical standpoint, not yet. You history teachers sometimes complain that you are getting too many good-for-nothing students—no, say rather, matriculates—that you don't want, those who come into your department on the mistaken assumption that it is easy, to escape the *Seylla* and *Charybdis* of the curriculum, the drudgery of the languages on one hand and the drudgery of the laboratory on the other. If you are not to be swamped by the leisure class you must, in self-defense, get something which corresponds to the study of a foreign language or of a natural science, corresponds not merely in time consumption or difficulty, but in giving the student some real work to do, something equivalent to the construction of a sentence or of an electric motor.

You have found this in the so-called laboratory method, or, as I prefer to say, the constructive method, of teaching history. The professor of chemistry is not content with turning out readers of chemistry. He turns out chemists. You are not content to turn out readers of history; you must turn out historians. High school historians, they may be, but true historians nevertheless, just as the high school student of chemistry, if he has been

taught right, is a real chemist, however limited his knowledge of the subject.

The only way a student can learn what history is, is to make some of it; just as the only way he can learn what  $H_2S$  is, is to make some of it.

The question is, then, where is the best crude material? I say it is all around you in the newspapers and magazines which flood the land. It is certainly crude enough. But it is living stuff, the best possible for constructive work. I appreciate fully the value of the source books which are now being published for the study of ancient and medieval history. They are admirable, and it is hard to see how they could be bettered for their purpose under the circumstances. But they suffer from one incurable defect; they have all been worked up in advance, and, what's worse, the student knows it.

Why do many of our brightest boys and girls drop out of school all along the line to go to work? Largely, I think, because they realize that at school they are kept at play, at make-believe. There is an atmosphere of artificiality about it all that is most repellent to the spirit of earnest youth. The problems set before them are not real problems, they are pretended problems. In my school days they used to be called, more honestly it seems to me, "examples." For in a real problem the answer is known to nobody. But all these things ending in question marks and marked "problems"—the answers to them are to be found in the teacher's head or in the key hidden in his desk. If the student buys a second hand arithmetic he may find the answers all neatly penciled in. At any rate, the "?" is a lie. Nobody really wants to know what is ostensibly asked for, least of all the teacher who asks for it.

Of course, the student can and does learn arithmetic from working over these old examples and, of course, the source book with its carefully selected documents and its skilfully contrived questions is useful. But the student using such methods feels their artificiality just as the student in masonry who builds a chimney in the middle of the shoproom floor, to be taken down by the janitor after he has gone. How much better to give the student in history a chance to grapple with real problems, snatched alive and kicking from the stream of time?

There are two ways of approaching a subject, the logical and the psychological. They are rarely the same and usually we have to choose between them. The older pedagogy chose the logical. Modern pedagogy prefers the psychological. In teaching geography it used to be the custom to begin with "the earth is round like a ball" or even further back in the primal nebulae. Now, the child begins with his own school room and gradually widens his

<sup>1</sup> Address delivered before the History Section of the New York State Teachers' Association, at Syracuse, on November 23, 1915.

view to take in the country, the state and the nation. When biology first was introduced it was common to begin with bacteria and diatoms, which the boys could not usually find under the microscope and so drew nice pictures of airbubbles instead. Now, the teacher begins with an animal as near to man as the laws of the state allow. The psychological starting point is always the nearest, the here and the now.

If the history teacher is to be successful he must learn the same lesson as his colleague in geography and biology. The chronological method of teaching history must be discarded if it proves not to be the psychological. The earliest historians were merely chroniclers and modern historians, sometimes show atavistic tendencies of return to the old type. But it may prove to be better to follow up a line of interest than to follow the calendar.

But to begin with modern history is not to end there. The first lesson the botanist gives to his specimen collectors is "dig up your plant by the roots." The history teacher who uses a periodical as his text-book will give the same injunction. The classicist need have no fear of being neglected. We cannot read the daily paper intelligently without calling him in to help us. The morning paper when it tells of the fighting at the Dardanelles takes us straight back to the battle of Aegospotamos, to Xerxes whipping the waves, to the ringing plains of windy Troy. Why is Venizelos, the Cretan, master of Greece? To answer that we must learn what the sea power meant to the kings of Knossus, we shall hear of the Minotaur, the labyrinth and the double-bladed battle ax. Why did England offer Cyprus to Greece? That leads us to Disraeli, to Famagosta, to Richard Coeur de Lion, to Harun-el-Raschid, to Augustus, to Cambyses, to Aphrodite rising from the foam of the sea. Why was the King of Greece named Constantine and why did he refuse to join the Allies when he learned that Russia was to get Constantinople? What claim has Italy on Tripoli and why does she aspire to be Queen of the Adriatic? Is Riga a German or a Russian city and why? Why do the Chinese feel the loss of the Shantung province more than they would any other?

If history is studied from books, some historian is sure to be neglected, the classicist, the medievalist, the modernist, the economist or the orientalist. But if history is studied from the journal, every single one of them will have his innings. And it is the only way of ensuring that the students get a well rounded education. You can't trust a teacher to select the topics. He's too partial to what he happens to know and, therefore, is most interested in. Anybody can keep up a reputation for wisdom if he is allowed to choose his own ground. But the teacher who lets life dictate the lesson for the day has true courage and shows a confidence in himself which will inspire the confidence of his students. What respect would a teacher of mathematics command if his pupils knew that he never tackled a problem unless he had worked it out beforehand? It is when the teacher

of history dares apply his mind and his method to the solution of a problem of which the answer is still on the knees of the gods that he commands the respect which is given to the chemist who analyzes an unknown. And when the student finds out that he, too, in a humble way, can use this new tool of the historical method in analyzing the unknowns which the news of the day presents to him, then for the first time he gets confidence in the value of history and delight in its study. If you have ever seen the change that comes over the spirit of a class in chemistry when they shift from routine experiments to the analysis of unknown substances, you will understand what I mean. It is when they get to determining for themselves the composition of minerals which the professor himself does not know that they work till the janitor turns them out of the laboratory.

Every study has some popular prejudice to overcome. The prejudice that lies in your way is the common opinion that history is something cut and dried, that it deals with things all over and done with and, therefore, of no importance to anybody. For after all, learning is the servant of action; we want to learn in order to be able to do. And if it were true, as too many folks believe, that the history of the past concerns only the past, then it is not a study which could profitably occupy the time of the living, and all your salaries are unearned.

It is not necessary in talking with history teachers to waste any time refuting the fallacy that history deals only with dead men, that it is a post mortem performed on very ancient corpses. We have only now to consider how the common prejudice arising from this mistaken conception of the purpose of historical study may be overcome. It can be overcome, it seems to me, in only one way, that is, by showing that the study of the past does aid in the understanding of the present. Don't be content with telling your students that history is a valuable study and will be of great use to you in later life. Remember that every other teacher is saying the same about his subject. What's more, some of them are proving it, and you have got to prove it, too, if you want to attract and hold the bright students.

You know what the study of history has done for you to make life interesting. You know how it has broadened your mind and extended your vision. It has given you the power to penetrate the present; you can see what lies behind the superficial appearance of things. Man is born myopic and before he can see things properly his vision has to be corrected by that operation known as the study of history. When this natural myopic man looks at a newspaper he sees only the words printed on it and they are mostly meaningless to him. But to you the page is transparent, you look through it down into the depths of historical perspective. He reads that General Mackensen is fighting his way through Serbia along the Morava river. All he knows is what he reads and that in itself is not worth knowing. For all he understands Mackensen might as well have gone

up the Yukon or the Yangtse Kiang. But to you this is a blazed trail, the highway of historic armies; every step of it is marked with the names of mighty men who have marched up and down that valley.

By what route does the Kaiser's army go to Constantinople? No need to tell you. If you had not read a paper for the last two months you would know more about it than the man who has read nothing but the paper. You would naturally expect the German troops first to cross the Danube and capture Belgrade, then march up the Morava river to Nish, thence east to Sofia and so on to Constantinople and the Dardanelles. So they did, and how were you able to tell so well in advance what the movements of the German army were to be? Did you read the Kaiser's mind? No, you had simply read history. You had read that in 441 A. D., Attila first crossed the Danube and captured Singidunum, then marched up the Margus river to Naissus, thence east to Sardica and so on to Byzantium and the Hellespont, which is saying the same things in ancient words instead of modern. We read in the Berlin papers this week that a through express train service, with dining and sleeping cars, is soon to be put on from Vienna to Constantinople. You do not need a railroad guide for that route. Just take along your map of Attila's march to Byzantium and translate the names into their modern equivalents. It is dated 1474 years ago, but is still serviceable as a railroad folder.

This Balkan puzzle map with its outlandish names is all alive to you. So it should be to your students. Your problem is to prevent your lectures from becoming merely informational. If you get on to that ground you are lost. For when it comes to imparting information a book can beat any teacher. A book can carry more facts, be on duty more hours and do it cheaper than you can, and that is saying a good deal.

In your effort to make history the most vital, interesting and broadening of studies, I believe that the journalist can help you. For, after all, you must admit that the journalist is a historian of a sort, although I do not blame you for reluctance to admit him to your ancient and honorable gild. But the journalist when he works over the crude material of his original sources, the day's telegrams, the official statements, the personal narratives, the maps and photographs, selecting and rejecting, criticizing, comparing and verifying, and in the end combining the essentials of it all in one brief and readable narrative is following the method of a historian, although his product comes out in periodical installments unbound, to be read and forgotten in a day instead of being bound in stately volumes for the library, never to be forgotten—and rarely read. The journalist is simply a historian in a hurry.

Now, this invaluable training in historical methods you can give to your students by means of the weekly periodical. This is no rash speculation of an outsider. We have the proof of it in experience of hundreds of teachers all over this country. Last year the text-book in current history which I am engaged

in writing, "The Independent," was used by 25,000 students in the classrooms of schools ranging from the grammar grade to the university, so we know now how it works and are prepared to give advice to teachers on the basis of the actual workings of the method under all sorts of conditions.<sup>2</sup>

As a text-book the high school and college, the weekly periodical has been found more useful than the daily or monthly, although these may well be used for reference. For university students who have had considerable training in history and who can devote a large part of their day to the work, the daily newspaper can be used successfully. In Columbia University, for instance, where such a "laboratory" course is given, each student is required to take a different daily and clip all its important news items. These are then sorted and distributed according to topic among the students, one taking all French affairs, another all Chinese; one all labor questions, a third all commerce, etc. Then these are criticized and discussed by the instructor and class, and then written up in consecutive form. But this method requires too much time and experience on the part of the students to be serviceable in high school or most college classes. The daily is too bulky and heterogeneous to be put into the hands of such immature students. The monthly or quarterly is too belated. The weekly comes out at the most convenient interval for school purposes and contains just about the proper amount of matter on the important events of the day. The preliminary sorting of the daily news for the purpose of the weekly has eliminated most of what is sensational, local, unreliable and trivial. Yet, a weekly of national circulation is sufficiently timely to present the news while it is fresh and to provide material for the study of the relative creditability of sources and for the weighing of arguments on questions yet indeterminate. The student thus gets into the thick of things and learns to think for himself. When he finds his judgment confirmed by later events he gains confidence in himself and in the historical method. He feels something of the thrill that rewards the original research in any field. After such an experience he will never fall into the common fallacy of thinking of history as a closed book.

The histories which we value most highly are those written by contemporaries. Herodotus, Thucydides, Xenophon, Tacitus, Caesar, were all concerned chiefly with the events of their own times and used the past, quite properly, to explain and illuminate the present. Pure antiquarian research is a comparatively modern occupation. By means of it we know far more about the beginnings of Greek culture, the Cretan and Mycenaean periods, for instance, than Aristotle did. But Aristotle, you know, was not so

<sup>2</sup> The publishers of "The Literary Digest" inform the editor that at least 25,000 copies of their journal are used every week in schools and colleges; the publishers of "The Outlook" state that about 10,000 copies are so used; the "Review of Reviews" is also widely used in class-work.—EDITOR.

much interested in antiquities as he was in contemporary politics and constitutional law. His labors would have been lessened and his power of generalization enhanced if he had the advantage of such a reference library on current events all over the world as modern journalism has brought within the reach of every reader.

"Among the ancients" said Isidore of Seville, in the seventh century, "no one wrote history unless he had been present and witnessed what was to be described."<sup>3</sup> Now, in those days and on up to the rise of modern journalism in the nineteenth century this recording of current events, which the ancients regarded as the only true history, was left to the chance that some man of literary ability might happen to see them and later have the inclination and leisure to put his observations on paper. If Thucydides had not been exiled twenty years for treason we should never have had his history of the Peloponnesian War.

But, now, we have a large body of able and active men who are experienced in the art of investigating contemporary occurrences, and devote their whole time to recording and disseminating the results of their researches. The journalist is a professional historian in the primary sense of the word, however unworthy he may sometimes be of this high calling.

But whatever may be the faults of modern journalism—and they are most fully realized by those in the profession—it affords the best possible material for the historical scholar both in quantity and quality. In volume and accessibility no other historical literature can compare with that afforded by the newspapers and magazines of the day. Even when unreliable in matters of fact it gives valuable evidence on the subjective factors; how matters looked to contemporaries, what opinions and prejudices prevailed and what questions were discussed in a certain community at a given time. It has the supreme ad-

vantage of immediacy, of close relation in time, place and person to the events described. Memoirs and chronicles are subject to conscious or unconscious falsification. Diplomatic and official documents often conceal more than they reveal.

But to turn an untrained reader loose on half a dozen metropolitan Sunday papers in the expectation that he will gain from them an intelligent idea of the world about him is as cruel as it would be to put him in a room filled with medieval annals, lives of saints and feudal legal papers. In either case he would get plenty of facts but no philosophy of facts.

The superabundant and miscellaneous material collected for the daily is subjected to a second process of sifting and sorting for the weekly and in this stage is, as experience has shown, well adapted for use in the teaching of history. But the weekly periodical is not an automatic, self-teaching textbook. It needs a teacher more than any other kind of historical study. When I call "journalism an aid to history teaching," I do not mean that it will so lessen his work as to make it difficult for him honestly to earn his salary. But I do claim that it will make his work more interesting and more fruitful. It will be his delightful task to open the windows of the soul to the vistas of the past. He will be not so much the taskmaster as the interpreter. He will find himself the questioned instead of the questioner. And the student who enters history through the portal of journalism will unconsciously learn one lesson of the highest importance, he will have got the sense of the continuity of history. He will never make the mistake of imagining, like many students trained in the old way, that the history of the world consists of certain distinct events, classified like a card catalog, partitioned into sections according to century and country.

## The Use of Current Literature

BY G. E. BOYNTON, ERASMUS HALL HIGH SCHOOL, NEW YORK CITY.

The use of current topics in the classroom has passed beyond the experimental stage. For three years at Erasmus Hall High School we have added current literature to our course of study and are more firmly convinced than ever of its value. This is the verdict of so many schools that it seems safe to assert that this new pedagogical aid is to become a permanent possession.

I dare say that many teachers who have tried the experiment have made the same mistakes we have made and, perhaps, have become discouraged, as at times have we.

The duties of a teacher in these days are so ex-

acting, the demands by examining boards, colleges, etc., so great that one cannot blame the pedagogue for hesitating to try new ways, which seem to add to his burdens, unless he is assured of their value. We have learned from our mistakes and have come to have a great faith in this new ally of the teacher and student of history.

We used to try to do too much. There were so many topics which appealed to the teacher that one felt they must all be discussed in the classroom. The temptation was often too strong to neglect the text-book and dwell on these themes which seem more vital. We read of schools which even used current literature in the place of a text-book and we tried to come as near to them as we could.

Our conviction now is that a genius may accomplish these great things, but the ordinary teacher

<sup>3</sup> Quoted by Professor Hayes in his admirable article on "Propriety and Value of the Study of Recent History" in THE HISTORY TEACHER'S MAGAZINE, November, 1913.

will give up the race and become discouraged. The latter part of the term often found us in a scramble to cover the work, and a visiting examiner might have called our work, at that time, superficial.

The problem has resolved itself now into the simple one of making the best possible use of 30 minutes a week in the discussion of current topics with a view of vitalizing the pages of history and creating a permanent interest in the life of our time.

The "Literary Digest" helps us with this problem. The questions sent out we can just about cover in the time, and the work of the pupil is made definite.

We have used different weeklies and monthlies, but find, for all except the most mature students, the weekly is best adapted to our needs.

The papers are distributed Thursday or Friday, and the pupil has until Monday to read the news and look up his answers. It is a time when the family has some leisure and the pupil is encouraged to discuss the topics with the members of his family. Thirty minutes seems a short time for such work in the class, but the time upon time, forty weeks in the year, is bound to show good results. A half-lesson is assigned in the text so that the regular work does not suffer.

The bugaboo of a severe examination for some time was a discouraging element. When one's promotion depends upon the number passed, it is no wonder that many have felt that no risk should be taken. Our results, however, lead us to believe that pupils are quite as well prepared. Indeed, the light which the current problems throw on the text fixes these topics in mind as could be done in no other way.

What grades in high school shall use this literature? A year ago I would have answered, the senior grade in American history. Experience, however, has demonstrated the fact that the lower grades, where the pressure is not quite so great and where the history interest is just taking root, afford a soil well worth cultivating. Here are so many, too, who will not complete the course that it is very desirable that they have the new interest before they leave school.

I often think, teaching current literature is as helpful to the teacher as the pupil. We are often accused of hearing lessons and of giving little instruction. It is so easy to master a text-book, think out the questions, and then live on the results of former labors.

The teacher who leads the discussion of current topics will have no such easy task, but it will be much more interesting. He must constantly ask himself what topics this week will throw any light on the text? What ones will keep alive the history already learned? What topics are in their nature uplifting and will help boys and girls to form the right ideals?

The extra labor will repay him many-fold. An important pedagogical help will become a part of his possession, always ready to assist in making his

work effective. Often this will be manifest in the presentation of the lesson. The point of contact so often makes or mars a recitation.

Ask a boy to narrate the circumstances which led to the unification of Italy a half century ago and he may recall and recite a fair answer, probably with little interest. Ask him why Italy went into the present war and the element of interest will show itself in his answer. Then carry him back to the earlier struggles and the whole subject will take on a different meaning.

Ask him to explain the Monroe Doctrine and he may be able to recall the words of the text. Ask him why we seem to be held responsible for order in Mexico and his eye kindles. The road back then to the first announcement of this doctrine and its modifications is not long or uninteresting.

Why has the subject of science in the past two decades increased so much in interest? One reason, surely, is the laboratory method of teaching it. Students feel and see the real things they are trying to know and describe. Current topics afford the laboratory of the history teacher.

A few years ago teachers of history were constantly urged to use the sources in training students. With high school students, however, beyond a few illustrations, it was a hard road to travel. It was good discipline, but the interest was below par. Current literature offers the same kind of material and calls for the same methods. But the breath of life is present and the student undertakes the work with enthusiasm.

I made an experiment last year. I asked one class to make an outline of the state constitution as a part of their outside reading. To another class I assigned the task of reporting the work of the Constitutional Convention, noting the changes desired, with reasons. Each class did its work, but one found it more or less drudgery and the other full of interest. To the second class, after discussion, I said, "Now read the constitution and see if you would make any other changes." The burden of the task had been lifted by the periodicals we were studying.

I like to remember that we are teaching boys and girls, rather than history. This seems a good way of teaching habits of work. Good reading may become second nature to them.

Then, too, these interests are permanent. They are to furnish the atmosphere of the life of the student in the years to come. When he is a man he will still be reading about the rights of neutrals, changes in the Constitution, social reforms, etc. If we can enlist his interest now and train, somewhat, his judgment he may some day rise up and call us blessed.

We continually hear the charge from business men that our students are not prepared for life; that they are not well informed; that they cannot do things well; that they have not formed habits of industry. Colleges are inclined to make their requirements hard, on the ground that the pupil should have a more thorough training.

I am wondering if this kind of work will not tend to dispel such criticisms. It is so broadening, pupils are bound to see both sides; their judgment must temporarily be suspended. The facts must be weighed. I doubt, also, if any study will add more to the satisfaction of the pupil in later life to be able to appreciate literature and addresses which deal with the life of our time. To be able to understand and take our part in the conversation of intelligent people is a great pleasure. I often say to pupils when we have had a good lesson, "Now, tonight at the dinner table, when the conversation lags, bring up this topic and show the family that you know something about it."

One reason I like the "Literary Digest" so well, is because it lends itself so naturally to the debate. I am a firm believer in the debate as a means of sharpening wits, fixing facts and developing confidence.

A pupil will work double time on a debate and not feel that he has been at work. At first he will stumble when he tries to think on his feet, but practice will gradually give him control of himself and give him a power invaluable in after life. The material is at hand.

To-day we had had the lesson from the paper issued on February 12th.

It was a class in History I, studying the ancient world, but we took 30 minutes to discuss the President's Tour, Mr. Brandeis and the Supreme Court, the New Sea Code, Conscription in England, the Defense of Egypt. Then a few girls and boys, for 10 minutes, debated the relative advantages of city and country life.

The discussion on the President's Tour brought out the character of our government, where a president appeals directly to the people. Some one was asked to summarize the legislative powers of the President. The Supreme Court was shown to be unique in the history of the world. The people's rights were discussed as against the rights of property. The New Sea Code was the instrument for showing how laws of nations are made and how the United States may lead. The Defense of Egypt took us over the very ground we were studying in the text and helped to give life to the text.

Teachers often criticise grammar schools for the little they seem to teach; but the criticism should fall partly on us. What the pupil has learned we too often allow to lie dormant until much of it is lost, when a few minutes a week would enable us to keep this interest alive, and with it build greater thoughts and a richer life.

## A Class in Current Events

BY ANNIE B. KIRK, ST. MARY'S SEMINARY, ST. MARY'S, MD.

As teacher in English in St. Mary's Seminary, a small boarding school in Southern Maryland, I realize that my problem of control differs widely from that of teachers to whom comes the appeal of numbers in a wider environment.

However, it may prove interesting to know how I have developed my work in "Current Events" in a way which has produced results satisfactory to my principal and to my fellow-members of the faculty.

In the early days of the session, whilst the school was in process of reorganization, I mapped out a tentative outline, covering the main issues before the country as discovered in our periodicals and daily papers.

With this plan before me I requested space upon the schedule for a joint session, weekly, of my classes in junior and senior composition. This privilege accorded, the class assembled at the appointed hour, and with a program arranged upon the blackboard, comprising nine committees, I introduced each subject, by a brief report, supplying past events wherever necessary to bring the matter within the boundaries of the pupils' knowledge.

Therefore, the Mexican situation required a brief glance over the history of Mexico to the days of Maximilian, leading up to the Carranza-Villa contest, through the administrations of Juarez, Porfirio Diaz, Francis Madero and Huerta.

Likewise, the European War was approached through the parties aligned with the Allies as opposed to the powers upholding the central war party. The causes which precipitated the great world struggle were summarized, with a description of the famous campaigns of Belgium, France and the Dardanelles.

Having rounded out the assignment of the meeting, the following committees were appointed with chairmen from the Senior Class, and assistants from the Junior Class:

1. "Men and Women Before the Public."
2. "The War of the Nations."
3. "The Mexican Situation."
4. "Our National Defense."
5. "The Far East."
6. "Capital and Labor."
7. "Science and Invention."
8. "Literature and Art."
9. "Our Schools and Colleges."

The first five committees reported weekly, beginning with the chairman, in alternate weeks, the associate members reporting after having submitted their notes to the chairman for correction. As teacher in control, I preside at the meeting, announcing the committee and the name of the student who is to report. With clock before me the committee is changed at the end of the period assigned, six minutes being apportioned to each of the important committees.

Time forbidding a report of the nine committees for each class, the remaining four committees on the list report twice a month, alternating by twos, thus: "Capital and Labor" and "Science and Invention" are reported with the five leading committees one week, the next week giving place to reports on "Literature and Art" and "Our Schools and Colleges." These reports must be covered in five minutes to carry the work through the forty-minute period.

"The Outlook," "Current Events," "The Literary Digest," "The New York Times," "The Baltimore Sun" and "The Baltimore American" are our chief sources of information, although the Seminary subscribes to other leading periodicals, which are frequently requisitioned for additional data.

By Monday morning I have covered my assignment of reading through the issues above mentioned, with articles marked for the students' preparation of work for the following Thursday afternoon. Each day articles are marked in the daily papers, bringing the news up to date.

The chief duty of the pupil consists in eliminating all but the essentials of the articles which she reviews to comply with the short space permitted for her report.

During intermissions she organizes her data, writing a paper which she first commits to memory, later victimizing her best chum as a listener to her efforts at public speaking. As this class is conducted for the purpose of oral composition, no notes are allowed except when necessary to provide statistics.

It has been edifying to watch the growth from the parrot-like accuracy of early reports to the dignified

and easy delivery possible through an enlarging vocabulary and familiarity in facing an audience of critical school girls.

Neighbors attend the class to keep up with the movements of the day, and now and then a teacher appears in the audience to evince her interest in this important feature of our training.

As the months pass a wider group of our national affairs results through these meetings with a knowledge of the play of events which unite us to the nations widely separated from us by physical barriers.

The membership of committees will be changed only three times within the session, giving time for the students to familiarize themselves with their subjects through consecutive study of several months' reports.

Thus far we have reported upon Col. Goethals and his constructive work upon the Panama Canal; Brand Whitlock, as guardian of the Belgians; King Constantine, as neutrality expert; David Lloyd George, as England's strong man; President Wilson, as the master of conciliation; Rudyard Kipling, as Imperialist and Democrat; King Albert, of Belgium, and King Peter, of Serbia, as worthy representatives of the bravery and chivalry of the mediæval monarchs, and minor personages holding the fickle eyes of the public.

Conducted in this manner, this one class requires seven or eight hours reading on my part, and an equally generous portion of the students' time, but we would be unwilling to forego any part of the preparation, which would render possible less thorough and instructive sessions of our favorite class in English.

## Experimental Course in Industrial History

BY ELLEN L. OSGOOD, JULIA RICHMAN HIGH SCHOOL, NEW YORK CITY.

During the past year we have been conducting in the Julia Richman High School, some experiments in teaching history in its special relations to the problems of girls in the technical and commercial courses. We have developed, especially, a course in industrial history, which has seemed to us very much worth while. In the fall term an attempt was made to use one of the histories of commerce now on the market as a text-book in industrial history, but the results were unsatisfactory. The text contained little material on the development of industry and there was a strong tendency on the part of the class to drift into discussions of the history of commerce, which led to the repetition of work done in commercial geography during the preceding term. Furthermore, the text, like most of its class, presupposed considerable knowledge of general European history, which the pupils in the commercial and technical courses do not possess.

The experience of the first term convinced us that something quite different must be done in the future. A course of industrial history was needed which

would trace the evolution of industry, touching only lightly on commerce, with as little admixture of politics as possible. As no text-book was found which provided a framework for such a course, an outline was worked out. In the preparation of the outline three aims were kept in view: (1) The elimination of all political history that is not so bound up with the industrial development of society as to be quite inseparable from it; (2), the choice of such topics as are full of meaning in the light of modern problems, and (3), the presentation of a sufficient number of connected facts to enable the pupil to see the principle of evolution working through man's industrial development.

It was decided to begin with the study of primitive industry. This decision was reached partly because beginnings are far easier for young people to understand than more complex modern conditions, and partly because the commercial geography course had touched upon the industries, as well as the commerce, of the city of New York. It proved convenient to divide the history of industry into four

periods: (1), the primitive stage as represented by Indian activities; (2), the pastoral stage as depicted in the Old Testament stories; (3), the agricultural period; and (4), the period of industrial revolution. The latter was extended to include the industrial history of distinctly modern times.

In each period one nation was studied in some detail and the industrial development of the other nations compared with it. Ancient Egypt was used as the type of the early agricultural period. England was chosen for the period of the Middle Ages, the period of the mercantile system, and for the beginnings of the industrial revolution. The United States served as a basis for the study of industrial history in distinctly modern times.

As no one book covered the topics which are included in the outline, the information necessary was gathered from various books at the disposal of the pupils in the school library, and in the public libraries of the city. This method lent interest to the recitations as pupils read on different phases of the subject, and each girl felt that what she had to say was of more importance than if all her neighbors had gathered the same material. Even the quick, bright pupils were interested in what the slow ones had to offer under these conditions.

We recognize the disadvantage of this method. It involves a serious waste of time in hunting up suitable books for the day's lesson and in copying such notes and outlines as are necessary for future reference. Moreover, an undue proportion of the recitation must be devoted to fixing facts and too little time to the discussion of problems. There is, however, some compensation; the time spent in the library results in increased efficiency among the pupils in the use of the books. Under this system, the notebook becomes something more than a necessary evil. In preparation for the lesson notes must be taken on the work.

During the recitation an outline was prepared which included the important contributions of the different members of the class. At first this outline was worked out by the entire class on the blackboard, but during the latter part of the term it became possible to appoint a secretary who outlined as the recitation proceeded without any formal instruction from the class. By the end of the term, most of the girls were capable of outlining the subject for themselves. The fact that there was no text-book to depend upon made the outline a vital problem to the pupil. That accounts for the progress made in this phase of the work.

Among our other problems, we found it desirable to keep a record of the amount of time devoted to the work by the individual pupils, in order that we might compare these courses with courses in foreign languages and in general history, for which it was accepted as a substitute in giving credit to the girls. To obtain this information each girl was required to keep a careful record of the books she read and the number of pages read in each. This record shows

that two-thirds of the pupils used more than ten different books and only two out of sixty-eight used less than six. Half the class read five hundred pages or more, the records of ten running over a thousand pages. The books most used were: O. T. Mason, "Woman's Share in Primitive Culture;" Cheyney, "Social and Industrial History of England;" Co-man, "Industrial History of the United States;" Robinson and Beard, "Development of Modern Europe;" Wolfson, "Essentials of Ancient History;" J. Russell Smith, "The Story of Iron and Steel;" and Webster, "History of Commerce." This would indicate that the amount of reading done by these classes was rather less than a second year class in general history would do, including both text-book and reference reading. The number of books consulted compares favorably, however, with the number used by a college preparatory class.

As given this term, the course in industrial history has proved its worth along several lines. First it has cultural value; it puts the pupils in touch with the life and thought of the past. Second, by studying the evolution of industrial society from primitive times to the present complex conditions the girls have come to have a better understanding of the society of which they are a part. Third, they are prepared to take up the study of economics with interest and understanding. Finally, partly from the method employed and partly from the nature of the subject, the pupils have gained power to hunt down the topics assigned them.

In planning this course it seemed possible that some knowledge of processes of manufacture might be given which would be of a very practical use to the girl entering the office of a manufacturing concern. No elaborate studies of industrial processes were attempted, but all the girls learned to appreciate at least the fundamentals involved in the production of food stuffs, textiles and steel. In future, we hope to develop this side of the subject so that it may be more closely correlated with the courses in biology, physics and chemistry which are to be offered to girls in the commercial and technical course.

#### OUTLINE OF INDUSTRIAL HISTORY.

JULIA RICHMAN HIGH SCHOOL.  
60 West Thirteenth Street, New York.  
ARTHUR M. WOLFSON, PRINCIPAL.

#### History Department.

ELLEN L. OSGOOD, CHAIRMAN.

#### I. Definition of Field Dealt with in Industrial History.

##### A. Manufacture of goods.

1. Labor.
2. Raw materials.
3. Processes of manufacture.
4. Implements and machines.
5. Products.

##### B. Exchange.

1. Methods of exchange.
2. Media of exchange.

## II. Primitive Industry. (Stone Age.)

- A. Labor.
- B. Raw materials.
- C. Implements.
- D. Processes of manufacture.
- E. Products.
- F. Commerce.

## REFERENCES.

Bucher, K. *Industrial Evolution*. Holt, 1912. \$2.50. (Philosophical—good for reference.)

Ely. *Studies in the Evolution of Industrial Society*. Macmillan, 1913. 50 cents. (Excellent material on primitive and pastoral stages in development of industry; also modern problems arising from our industrial system.)

Mason, O. T. *Woman's Share in Primitive Culture*. Appleton, 1914. \$1.75. (Excellent for primitive, especially Indian, industry.)

Clodd, E. *The Story of Primitive Man*. Appleton. 35 cents. (Good for immature pupils.)

## III. Industry in Pastoral Stage.

## REFERENCES.

Ely. *Studies in the Evolution of Industrial Society*. Macmillan. 50 cents. (Excellent material on primitive and pastoral stages in development of industry; also modern problems arising from our industrial system. The Bible stories of the patriarchs.)

## IV. Early Agricultural Stage. (Bronze Age.)

## A. Egypt (typical).

1. Laboring classes: freemen and slaves.
2. Raw materials.
3. Improved implements.
4. Processes of industry.
5. Products of industry.
6. Commerce, domestic and foreign.

## B. Babylonia and Assyria.

## C. Phœnicia.

## D. Prehistoric Greeks.

## REFERENCES.

Baikie, J. *The Sea Kings of Crete*. Macmillan (Black & Co., London). \$2.00. (Industries of prehistoric Greeks; very interesting.)

Edwards, A. B. *Pharaohs, Fellahs, and Explorers*. Harper. \$2.50. (Excellent illustrations; commerce, exports and imports touched upon.)

Flinders, Petrie. *The Arts and Crafts of Ancient Egypt*. McClurg Co. \$1.75. (Many helpful illustrations—text for teacher rather than pupil.)

Hawes. *Crete, the Forerunner of Greece*. Harper. 75 cents. (Prehistoric Greek industries.)

Morey. *(Outlines of Ancient History*. American Book Co. \$1.50.

Wolfson, A. M. *Essentials in Ancient History*. American Book Co., 1902. \$1.50.

## V. Industry in Greece and Rome. (Iron Age.)

## A. Greece.

1. Labor system.
2. Improvements in implements, processes and products.
3. Commerce.
  - a. Extent.
  - b. Introduction of money.

## B. Rome.

1. Effect of the Roman Conquest of the ancient world on industry and commerce.
2. Accumulation of capital and its effects.

## REFERENCES.

Cunningham, W. *An Essay on Western Civilization in Its Economic Aspects*. Vol. I. Cambridge University Press. \$1.10. (A readable book by an authority on the subject.)

Gulick. *Life Among the Ancient Greeks*. Appleton. \$1.25. (Good for vase-making, buildings, furniture, etc.)

Herbermann, C. G. *Roman Business Life*. American Book Co., 1880. 35 cents. (Very useful for high school pupils.)

Tucker, T. G. *Life in the Roman World, Nero and St. Paul*. Macmillan, 1911. \$2.50. (Roman furniture, Roman houses, the working class.)

Tucker, T. G. *Life in Ancient Athens*. Macmillan, 1914. \$1.25. (Household furniture.)

## VI. Industry in the Middle Ages.

A. Industry and commerce among the Teutonic invaders of the Roman empire.

B. England's industrial development.

## 1. The manor.

## 2. Industry in the cities.

a. Merchant guilds.

b. Craft guilds.

## 3. Commerce.

a. The fairs and markets.

b. Medieval trade routes.

4. Effect of the crusades upon industry and commerce.

5. Effect of Black Death on industry, commerce and condition of the laborer.

6. Germany, France, the Netherlands and Italy compared with England as to industry and commerce.

## VII. The Commercial Revolution.

A. Merchant adventurers.

B. Inclosures.

C. Domestic system.

D. Monopolies.

1. Growth and decay.

2. Advantages and disadvantages.

E. Growth of English commerce, 1500-1700.

## REFERENCES FOR VI AND VII.

Allsop, H. *An Introduction to English Industrial History*. Macmillan. 60 cents. (Good, but very condensed.)

Adams. *Short History of France*. Macmillan. \$1.25. (Provides some material on medieval commerce and industry in France.)

Ashley, W. J. *(An Introduction to English Economic History*. Parts I and II. G. P. Putnam & Sons. \$4.50. (Authoritative, but hard reading for high school students.)

Bateson. *Medieval England*. Putnam Sons, 1904. \$1.50. (Contains accounts of manors, guilds, etc., interesting to young people.)

Cheyney, E. P. *An Introduction to the Industrial and Social History of England*. Macmillan, 1914. 40 cents. (Excellent for high school pupils.)

Cunningham, W. *An Essay on Western Civilization in Its Economic Aspects*. Vol. II. Cambridge University Press. \$1.10. (A readable book by an authority on the subject.)

Cunningham, W. *Growth of English Industry and Commerce During Modern Times*. Cambridge University Press. Vol. I, \$2.75; Vol. II, \$2.00; Vol. III, \$4.75. (Important and authoritative; good for reference; too heavy to be extensively used by pupils.)

Cunningham and McArthur. *Outlines of English Industrial History*. Macmillan. \$1.50. (Good, but too condensed in places to be easily understood by young people.)

Gibbins, H. de B. *Industry in England*. Scribners, 1914. \$2.75. (Very good; somewhat more difficult to follow than Innes or Cheyney.)

Innes, A. D. *England's Industrial Development*. Rivington's (London), 1912. \$1.25. (An excellent book for pupils; a trifle more difficult than Cheyney's history.)

Gordy. *American Beginnings in Europe*. Scribners. 75 cents.

Henderson. *Short History of the German People*. Macmillan, 1913.

Hewin. *English Trade and Finance*. Methuen & Co. \$1.00. (Good for 17th century.)

Rogers. *(Six Centuries of Work and Wages*. Swan, Sonnenschein & Co., London. \$2.50. (Important, heavy for average pupil.)

Salzman. *English Industries of the Middle Ages*. Houghton & Mifflin. \$1.25. (A clear account of seven or eight medieval industries.)

Seeböhm. *English Village Community*. Longman. 4/6. (An authoritative work, heavy, good for reference.)

Tappan. *In Feudal Times*. G. G. Harvey & Co. (Very entertaining, deals with guilds, etc.)

Tickner, F. W. *Social and Industrial History of England*. Longmans. 1915. \$1.00. (Contains thirteen interesting chapters on Medieval Life.)

Vynogradoff. *The Growth of the Manor*. Macmillan. \$2.50. (Heavy reading for most pupils, well worth while for a serious study.)

Pirenne, H. *Belgian Democracy: Its Early History*. Longmans, Green & Co., 1915. \$1.50. (Guilds, crafts, exporting, industries, condition of the industrial worker dealt with briefly. Book closes with the 16th century.)

Slater, G. *The Making of Modern England*. Houghton, Mifflin Co., 1914. \$2.50. (Enclosures interestingly treated.)

Emerton, E. *Medieval Europe*. Ginn & Co., 1903. \$1.25. (Manors, guilds; something on Italy.)

### VIII. The Agricultural Revolution.

- A. New crops; artificial grasses, rye, beans, potatoes, turnips, etc.
- B. Improved farm implements.
- C. Improvements in cattle and sheep breeding.
- D. Capitalist farmers.

#### REFERENCES.

Rogers. *Six Centuries of Work and Wages*. Swan, Sonnenschein & Co. \$2.50.

### IX. Industrial Revolution in England.

- A. Inventions.
  - 1. Textile machinery.
  - 2. Steam engine.
- B. The factory system.
- C. Effect of factory system on—
  - 1. Growth of cities.
  - 2. The laborer.
  - 3. Capitalist.
- D. Development of coal and iron industries.
- E. Effect of new inventions upon transportation facilities.
  - 1. Roads.
  - 2. Canals.
  - 3. Railroads.
- F. Effect of the industrial revolution on—
  - 1. Commerce.
  - 2. Society.
  - 3. Government regulations of industry and commerce.
    - a. Free trade.
    - b. Factory legislation.
  - 4. Growth of democracy.
- G. Industry and commerce of England to-day.

H. Development of Germany, France, Italy, Spain and Russia, 1750-1915, compared with England.

#### REFERENCES.

The same reference books are useful as we used for Industries in the Middle Ages. In addition

Dooley, W. H. *Textiles*. D. C. Heath & Co., 1912. \$1.25. (A suitable description of spinning, weaving, dyeing, etc., of textiles.)

Thurston, R. H. *History of the Growth of the Steam Engine*. Appleton, 1907. \$2.00. (Readable and thorough.)

Toynbee. *Industrial Revolution*. Longmans. \$1.00.

Woolman and McGowan. *Textiles*. Macmillan, 1913. \$1.35. (A brief history of the development of spinning and weaving, followed by a thorough simple explanation of modern processes.)

Robinson and Beard. *Development of Modern Europe*. Vol. II. Ginn & Co. \$1.35.

Slater, G. *The Making of Modern England*. Houghton, Mifflin & Co., 1914. \$2.50. (Excellent for enclosures, condition of the rural and urban workers in the early nineteenth century, development of English industry, 1800-1900; the labor movement. Interestingly and clearly written.)

### X. Industrial Development of the United States.

- A. Foundations of our economic greatness.
  - 1. Industrial and commercial opportunities offered by the Americans.
  - 2. Economic conditions in Europe encouraged exploration and settlement in America.
  - 3. Types of people drawn to America.
- B. Colonial period.
  - 1. How the first colonists meet the bills for their imports.
  - 2. The south, a plantation.
    - a. Agriculture.
    - b. Manufacturing.
    - c. Commerce.
  - 3. The middle colonies.
    - a. Agriculture.
    - b. Manufacturing.
    - c. Commerce.
  - 4. New England.
    - a. Farming.
    - b. Fishing.
    - c. Manufacturing.
    - d. Commerce.
  - 5. The policy of England towards colonial industry and commerce.
- C. Economic effects of the Revolution.
- D. Causes of the American Revolution.
- E. The industrial revolution in United States.
  - 1. Causes.
  - 2. Government encouragement.
  - 3. Rise of the textile industry.
  - 4. Rise of the steel industry.
  - 5. Effect of the revolution upon commerce; formation of classes; growth of cities.
- F. Industry in the United States to-day.
  - 1. Raw material.
    - a. List of materials.
    - b. Sources.
  - 2. Implements.
    - a. Farm machinery.
    - b. Printing press.
    - c. Eight or more typical machines used in manufacturing plants.
  - 3. Labor.
    - a. Organized labor.
    - b. Condition of unorganized labor.
  - 4. Capital in modern industry.

- a. Need of capital.
- b. Capital how obtained.
- c. Government regulation of capitalist organizations.
- 5. Modern industrial organization.
  - a. Organization of a typical factory.
- 6. Industrial products of United States.
- 7. Commerce.
  - a. Transportation facilities.
  - b. Business organization.

## REFERENCES.

Coman, K. *Industrial History of United States*. Macmillan, 1914. \$1.60.

Earle. *Home Life in Colonial Days*. Macmillan. 50 cents. (Good for colonial industries.)

Hammond. *The Cotton Industry*. American Economic Association. \$2.00.

Hobson. *Evolution of Modern Capitalism*. Scribners. \$1.50. (Useful reference book.)

Horne. *The Age of Machinery*. Blackie & Son. 75 cents.

Johnson, E. R. *American Railroad Transportation*. D. Appleton & Co., 1915. \$1.50. (Heavy for average high school pupil. Recommended to any boy or girl going into railroad office.)

Knoop. *American Business Enterprise*. Manchester University Publications. 45 cents. (A brief, interesting discussion from Englishman's point of view.)

Moore, J. R. H. *Industrial History of American People*. Macmillan. \$1.50. (Takes up fishing, fur trading, agriculture, etc., from colonial times down.)

Page, L. W. *Roads, Paths and Bridges*. Sturges & Walton. \$1.00. (Readable, useful for road building in general.)

Philip. *The Romance of Modern Chemistry*. Van Nostrand. \$1.50. (Good for reference.)

Ely. *Studies in the Evolution of Industrial Society*. Macmillan. 50 cents.

Popplewell. *Some Modern Conditions and Recent Developments in the Iron and Steel Production in America*. Van Nostrand. 30 cents. (Presupposes some knowledge of chemistry. Good for mature pupils, of some use to all.)

Talbot. *The Railway Conquest of the World*. Lippincott. \$1.50. (Interesting account of some of the most picturesque feats of railroad engineering.)

Webb. *History of Trade Unionism*. Longman. \$2.50. (Useful reference book.)

Weeden. *Economic and Social History of New England*. 2 vols. Houghton, Mifflin. \$4.00. (A thorough study of the subject, the results of which are presented in an interesting way. Excellent.)

Wright. *Industrial Evolution of United States*. Scribners. \$1.50. (Very good.)

Claxton. *The Mastery of the Air*. Blackie & Son. 75 cents, net. (An interesting book for boys.)

Woolman and McGowan. *Textiles*. Macmillan, 1913.

Shadwell, A. *Industrial Efficiency*. Longman & Co., 1913. (Factory conditions, wages and trade unions.)

Smith, J. Russell. *Story of Iron and Steel*. Appleton. 75 cents.

Hugh S. Eayrs has an interesting study of Winston Spencer Churchill in the "Canadian Magazine" for February, 1916. In conclusion, he says: "If he comes through the war safely, he will, in my judgment, come back to Britain to be a mighty force in British politics. . . . He will have lost . . . that over-confidence which has characterized his early political life. He will return with just as much personal ambition as is necessary, hopeful and safe, and no more."

## Periodical Literature

EDITED BY GERTRUDE BRAMLETTE RICHARDS, PH.D.

"Tinkering the Constitution" ("Unpopular Review," January-March, 1916) is a good summary of the various 2,500 resolutions to amend the Constitution since its framing, as well as a study of the results these resolutions would have had, if adopted.

Frederick Moore's "Yuan Shih-Kai and the Throne of China" ("World's Work," February, 1916) is an appreciation of the common-sense of this prominent Oriental. Mr. Moore, for five years the Associated Press Correspondent in Pekin, was a witness of much he recounts in this sketch.

"Invading Alsace" ("Yale Review," January, 1916) is the diary of a French officer in service at the opening of the Great War, August 1-26, 1914.

"The Colonial Ambitions of Germany," by M. le Marquis Jacques de Dampierre ("Revue des deux Mondes," January 1916), is a sketch of the growth of Germany's colonies, of her colonial policy, and of the future of her colonial possessions.

Lawrence J. Burpee's "Our Canadian-American High Court" ("Review of Reviews," February, 1916) gives an account of the work of this International Joint Commission, since its establishment, of its powers and of the importance of the interests involved.

The "Outlook" for January 26, 1916, publishes an account of a personal interview with three leading German Socialists—Karl Liebknecht, author of "Militarismus und Antimilitarismus;" Karl Kantsky, "the leader of those who accept the teachings of Karl Marx as the Bible of social revelation," and Eduard Bernstein, whose creed is "the democratization of the German State and the establishment of social reform." Liebknecht calls the war "a war of lies;" Kantsky said, "We are heart and soul against a war of conquest, but we cannot even protest against a war with Belgium;" and Bernstein added, "The Kaiser asks only for money to carry on war, . . . and the terms of peace will be those he arranges."

"Our Latin-American Policy," by ex-Secretary of State Richard Olney ("North American," February, 1916), gives as the object of our present policy: First, to secure every American State against loss of independence or territory at the hands of a European Power; second, to secure its interest in the Panama Canal by whatever military measures may be appropriate or necessary; third, to protect its interests in the Panama Canal and Zone by whatever measure may be appropriate and necessary to prevent unjust and ruinous competition.

"The Religious Revival in the Labor Movement," by George Haw ("Hibbert Journal," January, 1916), claims that before the war "there were influences at work in the labor movement making for a religious revival such as democracy has never known since it became organized," and that these influences, still at work, "promise to produce with the establishment of peace a wonderful return on the part of democracy to the old standards of the Christian faith."

"Adrianople Between Wars," by H. G. Dwight ("Harper's," February, 1916), is a chatty, well-illustrated article, which summarizes well the history of the little country.

Julius M. Price, War-Artist Correspondent of "Illustrated London News," with the Italian army, has an interesting article, "Five Months on the Italian Front," in the February "Fortnightly." He emphasizes the wonderful preparedness of the Italians, their extraordinary eagerness and zest even in the most irksome service, the placidity of the men, and the air of solid business pervading everything.

W. McConaughy's "The Balkan States" ("Munsey's," February, 1916) has splendid illustrations and convenient maps.

"Russia's Religion of Suffering," by Stephen Graham ("The London Quarterly Review," January, 1916), is a study of Russian character as manifested in the great crises of their country's history.

"The Contemporary Review" for January, 1916, publishes "Seven Postulates of International Law," by Sir John Macdowell, K.C.B., a hopeful view of the permanence of international law.

"Montenegro: Patriotism without Compulsion" ("Cornhill," January, 1916) is an appreciation of the little mountain kingdom by Edith Sellers.

"The Varus Episode," by W. A. Oldfather, in "The Classical Journal" for January, 1916, is an interesting and careful study of the northern campaign of the Roman army. Many new details are added to our knowledge of the situation.

Hendrik Willem van Loon writes on "The World After the War" ("Century," February, 1916), and prophesies a new change in ideals, military, social and political—as, indeed, do all other writers on this subject. However, the details of his prophecy are interesting and suggestive.

"The Generalizations of Economic History," by Abbott Payson Usher ("American Journal of Sociology," January, 1916), traces the relationship between economic organization and commercial development, as well as the rise and development of the great capital cities.

## Reports from The Historical Field

### NOTES.

"Outlines of American Industrial History" is the title of a syllabus prepared by Prof. Raymond G. Taylor, of Kansas State Agricultural College, and published by the College at Manhattan, Kansas. (Price, 25 cents.) The syllabus contains a reasonably full analysis of the country's industrial history. It has many references to textbooks on American history and to more extended works upon industrial and economic life, and also to general historical publications. About one-third of the book is devoted to the period from 1860 to the present time.

Prof. Austin Craig, of the University of the Philippines, has published in the "Philippine Education" for December, 1915, a series of extracts from the letters and addresses of Jose Rizal, the Philippine patriot. The same number of the paper contains a statement of the aims and methods of teaching history in schools.

A conference of history teachers was held in connection with the annual meeting of the Ohio State Teachers' Association on December 30. The program of the history section was as follows: "The Relation of the History Course in the High School to the History Course in the University," by G. A. Washburn, of Columbus; "How Much Ohio

History Should Be Taught," by Prof. C. S. Martzolff, of the Ohio University; "The Civic View of Teaching History," by George W. Eddy, of Youngstown. Topics for discussion were "How May Current Events Be Best Used in Connection with the Regular Work in History?" and "What New Aids to the Teaching of History Have Recently Appeared?"

The Yale University Press announces for publication in March, 1916, "A Catalogue of Newspapers in the Library of Yale University." The Yale collection of newspapers is one of the largest in the country, and is particularly rich in files of New England, Southern and English newspapers.

"The Seneca Indians in the War of 1812" is the title of a short article which appears in the "Southern Workman" (Hampton, Va.) for February, 1916.

The Historical Society of Pennsylvania has lately acquired a large collection of papers of Jay Cooke which will be of much service to the historian of national finances, as well as of western railroad development.

"The Opportunity of the Town Lies in the Country" is the title of a pamphlet sent out by the International Harvester Company, of Chicago, describing the efforts and results obtained by the Agricultural Extension Department of that company.

The United States Bureau of Education has issued "Immigrant Education Letter No. 3," containing suggestions to principals and teachers of English for foreigners. The letter in a practical way gives advice concerning the order of procedure and the most approved principles of classification of foreigners who desire to study the English language.

The United States Civil Service examination for Chief of Editorial Division of the Bureau of Foreign and Domestic Commerce, Department of Commerce, Washington, D. C., will be held on March 7, 1916. Application should be made with the United States Civil Service Commission, Washington, D. C., not later than March 7, 1916.

The spread of the interest in historical pageants is shown by the giving of an elaborate pageant with fifteen tableaux representing scenes in the history of Anoka, Minn. The pageant was written by Mr. Roe G. Chase, of the Anoka "Herald." Fifteen organizations of the city co-operated in the presentation and over three hundred persons took part. The topics treated included those from the Mound Builders and Indians to the coming of the first white man in 1659, and closed with a scene representing the burning of the town in 1884.

A new periodical entitled, "The Journal of Negro History," appeared in January of this year. The journal will be published quarterly by "The Association for the Study of Negro Life and History," which was organized in Chicago in September, 1915. The president of the association is George C. Hall, of Chicago; secretary-treasurer is Jesse E. Moorland, of Washington, D. C.; and the editor of the journal is Carter G. Woodson, of Washington, D. C.

A biographical sketch of James W. Taylor, who was born in New York State in 1819, removed to Minnesota in 1856, appeared in the "Minnesota History Bulletin," Vol. I, No. 4, for November, 1915. Taylor was special agent of the United States Treasury Department from 1859 to 1869. He played an active part in connection with the Red River Rebellion of 1869, and acted as United States Consul at Winnipeg from 1870 to 1893. He died on April 28 of the latter year. He was a pioneer in the commercial interests of the Northwest, both in Canada and the United States.

The New York Public Library has issued in its Bulletin a bibliography by Alpha Chaflin of "Political Parties in the United States, 1800-1914."

The History Club of the Higher Schools of Philadelphia met at the Philadelphia High School for Girls on February 8. A large number of high school teachers were present. Miss Helen Jaquette, of the Frankford High School, spoke upon the necessity of requiring history in all high school courses. Mr. Percival S. Strauss, of the Germantown High School, discussed the question as to what proportion of high school units should be devoted to history. Prof. A. E. McKinley, of the University of Pennsylvania, spoke upon recent changes in history teaching. The meeting adopted the following resolution: "That at least four units of history be offered in every course in every high school; that among those offered there should always be two years of European history and one year of American history and one year of civics and economics; that European history be taught by a system of selected topics."

#### NEW YORK CITY CONFERENCE.

The annual meeting of the New York Conference of the Association of History Teachers of the Middle States and Maryland was held February 12, at the Washington Irving High School.

Mr. Paine in his introduction spoke of certain recent attacks made on history as a subject not sufficiently vital for a place in the school curriculum. He warned history teachers to rally to its protection and demonstrate its great educational value by their work.

Prof. Dawson, of Hunter College, touched on some aspects of the Washington meeting of the American Historical Association.

He spoke of the so-called insurgent movement, its rise and its effect on the Association.

He also discussed the work of the Committee on History in Schools. This committee is seeking to make history a real factor and power in the schools and to free history teachers from the deadening influence of examinations.

The committee desires to begin some process by which history may be made more definite. In order to obtain some selective topics a questionnaire is to be sent out to the schools. This method of obtaining information Prof. Dawson felt to be slow and cumbersome and lacking in effective result.

In finding some principle on which the selection of topics should be based, great difficulty had been experienced and little definite result attained. Prof. Dawson felt that every high school graduate should have some idea of the evolution of society, some ability to visualize the past, some sense of constructive idealism that would benefit the present-day world in which he lived.

The chief address of the meeting was then made by Prof. R. M. McElroy of Princeton University. Prof. McElroy presented in a delightful fashion the philosophy of the so-called "current events." His paper is printed elsewhere in this number of the MAGAZINE.

The discussion that followed Prof. McElroy's address was animated and vigorous. It drifted into a debate on patriotism, preparedness and the teacher's part in creating classroom public opinion.

The discussion was opened by Mr. Frank H. Miller who outlined the way he used newspapers and periodicals in school. Miss Harriet E. Wyckoff followed with an interesting and able presentation of the high school student's point of view as she found it in her classes and the necessity to teach some ideals of national service and national patriotism.

It developed in the commentaries that members of the Association made on Miss Wyckoff's paper that in many New York City high schools a high percentage of young students, especially among the Jewish and other foreign nationalities, had no feeling for America as a country, had no idea of any obligation of service or affection for the State and cherished the theory that the State or nation or city existed only to serve them—"what they could get out of it" as one boy frankly said.

The following persons were elected as officers for the ensuing year.

Chairman, Dr. Alfred C. Bryan, High School of Commerce, Manhattan; members of the Executive Committee, Mr. Frederick H. Paine, Eastern District High School, Brooklyn, Mr. H. F. Biddle, Plainfield High School, Plainfield, N. J., Dr. Don E. Smith, Morris High School, Bronx, Miss L. Louise Arthur, Bryant High School, Queens; secretary and treasurer, Mr. H. D. Steward, South Side High School, Newark, N. J.

#### BOOK REVIEWS

EDITED BY PROFESSOR WAYLAND J. CHASE,  
UNIVERSITY OF WISCONSIN.

BARKER, ERNEST. Political Thought in England from Herbert Spencer to the Present Day. New York: Henry Holt & Co., 1915. Pp. 256. 50 cents.

Those who are familiar with Mr. Barker's "The Political Thought of Plato and Aristotle" will find this little volume a decided contrast. The former is an intensive study of two of the great pioneers in political speculation, the latter is a bird's-eye view of the varied political theories of the last two generations. The title hardly covers the subject matter as continental writers who have influenced English thought are briefly discussed and the dependence of English political thought on sociological and economic writing is reviewed. Obviously the treatment in so small a volume must be summary in character, and any attempt to give an evaluation to the theories of those who stand in such close relation to present-day politics as Mr. Mallock and Mr. Angell must involve an emphasis which succeeding generations may revise. These limitations apply to any work of this sort. The reader who seeks a guide to further study, and still more he who wishes a summary of recent political thought will find this little book well suited to his needs. Mr. Barker's reading is wide, his interpretation sympathetic and impartial. He does not confine himself to the review of what he considers orthodox thinking, but seeks to expound the principles of all the writers who have had wide influence upon political thought. It has become commonplace that the vitality of a doctrine may have no relation to its theoretical soundness—hence the justification for discussing what the author admits "may be said to be bad books." Especially valuable to the reader interested in the study of the social sciences in general are the well-balanced discussions of the relation which the authors discussed bear to current theories in sociology and economics.

CHESTER LLOYD-JONES.

University of Wisconsin.

BELLOC, HILAIRE. High Lights of the French Revolution. New York: The Century Co., 1915. Pp. 301. \$3.00.

The "High Lights" are six in number, namely, "The Royal Seance," "The Flight to Varennes," "The Storming of the Tuilleries," "Under the Mill of Valmy," "The Death of Louis XVI," "Lafayette and the Fall of the French

Monarchy;" the last five are preceded by brief introductions. The six chapters with the connecting introductions deal with the fortunes of the French monarchy from the meeting of the States General in May, 1789, to the death of Louis XVI in January, 1793. The subject-matter is highly dramatic, and the book ought to be interesting. It is interesting; "Mr Belloc is always interesting;" Mr. Belloc is an artist.

A careful examination of the book, however, makes clear that Mr. Belloc's style cloaks a multitude of historical sins; he is profoundly unscientific and inaccurate. This is a fatal defect, is it not, in an historical work? For a novel, even an historical novel, it would not be fatal, but Mr. Belloc is supposed to have written a history, and if history is not true, of what value is it?

University of Nebraska.

FRED MORROW FLING.

RUSSEL, LINDSAY (EDITOR). *America to Japan*. New York: G. P. Putnam's Sons, 1915. Pp. 318. \$1.25.

According to the title page, this is "a symposium of papers by representative citizens of the United States on the relations between Japan and America, and on the common interests of the two countries," published by the Japan Society organized about 1905 for the purpose of promoting friendly relations between the two countries. Among the fifty-three contributors are to be noted names of prominent Americans like ex-President Roosevelt, former Secretaries of State Root and Bryan, several college presidents—Butler, of Columbia; Eliot, formerly of Harvard; Jordan, of Leland Stanford; Wheeler, of California, as well as others perhaps better qualified for expressing an opinion, like Thomas J. O'Brien, an ex-Ambassador from this country to the island kingdom, and George Kennan. The short papers by the last two are perhaps among the more instructive. There is no attempt at any continuity of thought or purpose further than emphasis on the good things to be said in behalf of the relations of the two countries to each other. This little volume ought to do much, if read by the people on both sides of the Pacific, to allay any possibly hostile feelings between them.

H. M. HENRY.

Emory and Henry College, Virginia.

WILLIAMS, SHERMAN. *New York's Part in History*. New York: D. Appleton & Co., 1915. Pp. ix, 390. \$2.50.

New York is becoming conscious that her history has been neglected. The New York Historical Society, situated in New York City, has a fine building, a splendid collection of Egyptian relics, and some genealogical lore; but it has not taken seriously the history of the State, which would seem to some to supply its only just *raison d'être*. Despite this seeming neglect, however, there are those in the State who are awake to the fact that while New York has made no small part of the history of the United States, she has left to Massachusetts and to other States the main part of the writing of it. A Committee of Nine, with no less a historian among them than Prof. Herbert L. Osgood, has recently issued a pamphlet calling attention to this neglected field of patriotic endeavor; and offering a series of prizes for the best efforts at its cultivation.

The volume before us is not in competition for any of these prizes apparently, but it is an offspring from this awakening. Mr. Williams is president of the New York State Historical Association, which is making some serious effort to perform the function for which it exists, and he has written this book not with the expectation of making any considerable contribution to historical scholar-

ship, but with a view to emphasizing, as the title indicates, some incidents in the history of New York which have been passed over with too little attention by historical students. He thinks that the Battle of Golden Hill is comparable to the Boston Massacre; that the Battle of Oriskany may be classed with that of Bunker Hill; that the New York counterpart of the Boston Tea Party should not be forgotten; that Zenger's Trial with its resulting victory for freedom of the press should be given fair recognition in narratives of the Revolutionary movement. If you, gentle reader, happen to know nothing of these items, you will find them interestingly discussed in Mr. Williams' book. You will also find the views of a New Yorker with regard to the great importance of Sir William Johnson's handling of the Indian question; to Seward's purchase of Alaska; to Burgoyne's campaign, and to New York's part in the promotion of free public education.

One who expects in this book a finely proportioned product of finished historical scholarship will be disappointed; but he who looks for a new point of view with reference to some topics which have been more or less passed over in the writing of State history may find here some interesting reading.

EDGAR DAWSON.

Hunter College.

THOMPSON, ROBERT J. *England and Germany in the War. Letters to the Department of State*. Boston: Chapple Publishing Co., Ltd. Pp. 127. \$1.00.

This book comprises a series of letters addressed to the Secretary of State by the author, recently United States Consul at Aachen, Germany. These letters were first printed serially in the Chicago "Tribune" in February, 1915. In the second letter the writer alleges that he resigned his office because the State Department at Washington ordered him to cease investigations and discontinue reports about the murder of German soldiers by Belgian villagers. He seems to believe that the German treatment of the Belgians was wholly justifiable by way of reprisal. Then successive letters deal with the issues of the war, discussing such subjects as "Germany's Rise and England's Decline," "Diplomacy's Isolation of Germany," "Sea vs. Land Militarism," "German Culture," "Atrocities on the Field and in the Press," and "The Attitude and Duty of America." In these letters he shows a strong anti-British feeling. He declares that he does so only because he desires to see fair-play and because he is convinced that the stories of German atrocities are basely false. The letters contain a number of inaccuracies and inconsistencies. In one place he blames England strongly for bringing about the war; in another place he says he does not believe either Germany or England wanted war. In one place he declares that Germany did not want more land at all, but elsewhere he voices the German desire for "places in the sun." The letters were written from Aachen, and they certainly give the German point of view, but they naively disregard facts as to the responsibility for the war which are amply proved by the official documents of the various nations, including Germany and Austria. The author closes with a strong plea for peace and a world federation against war. It is doubtful if the book will be of any great value for school libraries.

Ohio State University.

CLARENCE PERKINS.

HASKINS, CHARLES HOMER. *The Normans in European History*. Boston: The Houghton Mifflin Co., 1915. Pp. viii, 258. \$2.00.

By inviting Haskins to lecture on the Normans, the trustee of the Lowell Institute has placed all lovers of history

in his debt. For the first time the work of the Normans "as founders and organizers of States and contributors to European culture" has been accurately described. Haskins' fitness for this task has long been known to specialists; in a succession of learned articles he has illuminated many of the dark corners of our knowledge. Again and again he has visited the Norman countries, observing keenly the geographical features and the architectural remains, delving among the records in the archives. Now, with striking characterizations and apt literary allusions, he has presented his subject so skilfully that only the specialist will fully realize the amount of learning and research on which the treatment is based. Full justice is done to other workers in the field, whose happy phrases are often quoted, but the lectures are based throughout upon an intimate knowledge of the sources whose very words are often woven into the text. The bibliographical notes are models of repression, avoiding all parade of learning, but giving all necessary guidance; no essential work is omitted.

This is a book which all teachers of history should read; and they will find it a pleasure, not a task. For collateral reading in medieval and English history it is one of the indispensable volumes.

DANA CARLETON MUNRO.

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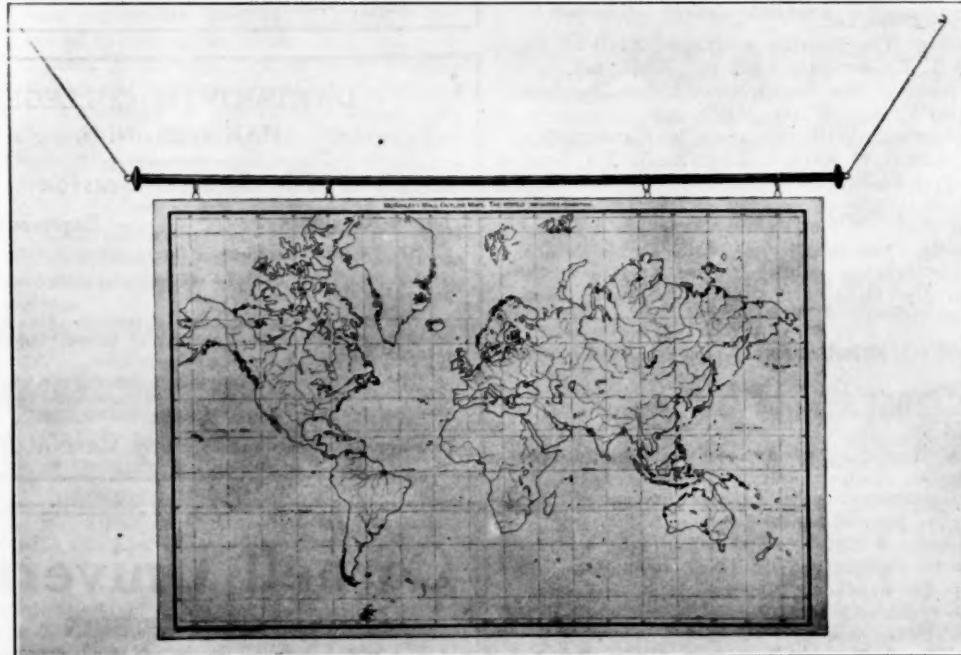
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